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## The Nation.

## CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK.....	351
SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.....	354
EDITORIAL ARTICLES:	
The Lawyers and the Field Code.....	356
Mahone's Work as a Repulsator.....	356
The Great Russian Bank Swindle.....	357
A Universal Day.....	358
SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:	
The Russian Menace and the Defence of India.....	358
English Sentiment in the Russo-Afghan Crisis.....	360
CORRESPONDENCE:	
Biennial Sessions.....	361
Statutes and Medals.....	361
A Youthful Judge of the Supreme Court.....	361
The Study of English at the South.....	361
Railroad Passes.....	361
To Magazine Editors.....	362
Tewdrannekh.....	362
NOTES.....	362
REVIEWS:	
Pasteur.....	365
Clark's Sign Language.....	365
Books About the Stage.....	367
The Native Religions of Mexico and Peru.....	367
The Flemish School of Painting.....	368
Italy.....	368
Lessons on Practical Subjects.....	369
Labrador.....	369
"Boots and Saddles".....	369
A Lady's Ride Across Spanish Honduras.....	369
Weird Tales.....	370
Poems, Plays, and Miscellaneous Essays of Charles Lamb.....	370
BOOKS OF THE WEEK.....	370

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 30, 1885.

## The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has an opportunity to do a great work for the army and navy, and we are glad to see signs that he means to do it. What is needed is that, whenever he has a vacancy to fill, he shall give the place to the man who has best earned promotion, and that, when a vacancy is ordered by a court-martial, or when a milder punishment is imposed by the same authority, he shall sustain the cause of justice by withstanding the inevitable appeals that he will set aside the verdict. He maintained the former principle in the first test case the other day, when he filled a vacancy in the Quartermaster's Department of the army by promoting a deserving officer who had been for twenty years in the service, solely on account of his worth and military services, instead of giving the desirable place to one of the rich and influential civilian applicants who zealously sought it. He has now enforced the other rule by approving the findings of the court-martial in the case of Lieutenant Jouett, of the army, who had been convicted of illegally using Government funds. What lends importance to this action is the fact that all sorts of army and political influence were invoked to secure a reversal of the sentence, after the too common custom. The offender's father is a rear-admiral in the navy and an old Kentucky Democrat, who was able to interest many people of importance in his behalf; but Mr. Cleveland paid no attention to such arguments and entreaties, and, after thoroughly examining into the matter, approved the sentence of dismissal. These actions, which there is every reason to believe are significant of Mr. Cleveland's settled policy, not only illustrate his capacity for resisting "influence," but they also show the great advantage which a President possesses who goes to Washington, as he did, free from the complications which beset every public man who has long been prominent in national politics.

The scandalous abuses which have for so many years characterized the management of our navy-yards are ended if Secretary Whitney follows the line of policy which he has laid down in his letter to the commandant of the Mare Island Navy-yard. Mr. Whitney has been looking into the conduct of the foremen of this yard in elections, particularly as developed in a contested election case from the San Francisco district growing out of the Congressional fight of 1882, and he finds the evidence clear that the vote of the employees was practically coerced and controlled by the foremen, who openly forced their subordinates to deposit folded ballots which they were not even allowed to read. The Secretary learns that the same foremen are still employed, and he notifies the commandant that they "should be cleared out of the yard in the interest of decent government." Nor does Mr. Whitney stop with any such half-way measure of reform. He gives notice that

"if any similar proceeding, or anything like it, or any attempt to coerce the vote of the employees of the yard by foremen or superior officers should take place hereafter, whether in the interest of the dominant party or otherwise, I will apply a similar remedy." There is evidently one member of the Cabinet who agrees with Mr. Cleveland, not only that "offensive partisans" should be dismissed, but that "their successors" as well should be taught that efficiency, fitness, and devotion to public duty are the conditions of continuance in a well-organized public service.

Nobody ever expected that the new Administration would make no mistakes. Some mistakes were inevitable. The Higgins appointment was the first, but it was in some degree excused by the fact that the entire Maryland delegation, Representatives and Senators, approved of it after it was done. At all events, there has been until now a strong disposition among the friends of the Administration to assume that it was an isolated case, and had no real significance as regards the general policy of the Administration. Some of the more recent appointments by the Treasury Department have been such, however, as to do a great deal toward weakening this friendly assumption. The selection of three such Internal Revenue Collectors, all in one week, as Pillsbury, Chase, and Troup, and the appointment of Secretary Manning's brother-in-law to be Superintendent of Repairs, are likely to be very unfortunate in their effects on the public mind. Worse selections than Pillsbury and Chase could hardly be made without going among the technically criminal class. They are hardened and worthless politicians of the very type over which, in the Republican party, Mr. Cleveland's election was supposed to be a great victory. Troup is one of the most prominent of those precious humbugs of our day, "the labor reformers," and is unfit for a place of trust with regular duties.

It ought to be said, in explanation or extenuation of the mistake made in Mr. Keiley's case, that any person possessing enough intellectual or social standing to be a candidate for a first-class mission, ought himself to know whether there is anything in his antecedents to disqualify him for the position offered to him, and, if there is, ought to tell the Secretary of State of it. A candidate for a place of this kind ought not to allow things to his prejudice as a candidate to be found out about him. Mr. Keiley ought to have been the first to tell the State Department that his views about the temporal power of the Pope were, or had been, such as to make him unfit to represent the American Government at the Italian court. If he is fit to represent the American Government at any court, he ought to have seen this himself at a glance. But we go further than this: we hold that any mature man who was of opinion, so late as 1870, that a priests' government, upheld by French bayonets, was good enough government for any civilized people, is not fit to represent the American people at any capital. Such a man is what

Wendell Phillips called "a recreant American." His political ideas are not American. He has, however, a perfect right to them as a private individual. He is at perfect liberty to believe, for his own private satisfaction, that the Pope's temporal power, upheld by a French brigade, was a good thing for the Romans; but he is not fit to go abroad as the exponent of American opinion about civil government. Every minister is or ought to be in some sort an apostle touching the things which his nation believes to be of prime importance in human society. No man, therefore, ought to go anywhere as an American representative who thinks well of a form of government which nearly every one of his countrymen, not a priest, would die sooner than live under.

The selection of Mr. Conrad N. Jordan as Treasurer of the United States in place of Mr. Wyman, resigned, will be generally approved by the business community of New York. Mr. Jordan's services in recent examinations, and his changes of the Treasury book-keeping, have demonstrated his capacity and fitness for the special duties to which he is now permanently assigned. There appears to be a disposition in some quarters to look upon Mr. Jordan's appointment as having a significant bearing upon the policy of the Administration on the silver question. Any such assumption would be groundless, for the reason that the Treasurer of the United States has nothing to do with the silver question except in the way of providing storage room for the silver dollars as they come into his hands. He is not expected to make recommendations respecting the general policy of the Government, although some liberty of complaint is allowed to him if the silver burden becomes inconveniently large. The policy of the Administration on the silver question was stated with such amplitude and force by President Cleveland in his letter to Congressman Warner that side inferences, drawn from the selection of subordinate officers, are unnecessary and superfluous.

It is a queer comment on the state of public opinion regarding the civil-service law, that immediately upon the announcement of Mr. Jordan's appointment, alarm and perspiration broke out among the whole force of employees in the Treasurer's office, which was only assuaged by the personal assurances of the new Treasurer that he intended to observe the requirements of the act in letter and spirit. The terrors of the spoils system have penetrated the public service to such a degree that nearly everybody expects that the law will be overridden or circumvented in some way, no matter how carefully it may be worded, or how severe may be the penalties for its violation. As the Postmaster at Cleveland said in his report to the Civil-Service Commission, it was at first impossible "to make applicants understand that there was no underground railway to the offices." Everybody wanting office believed that the act was a bit of humbug like a party platform, and everybody in office apprehended that this was the correct view. A true test of the *bona fides* of the

law, and of its efficacy to accomplish its declared purpose, was possible only under an Administration opposed in politics to the party whose appointees held the bulk of the clerkships and other subordinate places. There has not been, and we venture to say that there will not be, a single departure from the spirit of the law during the whole of President Cleveland's Administration. If it shall be shown in a term of four years that there is absolutely no underground railway to the offices embraced in the civil-service act, the beneficial results to the morale of the service and to society itself will be immense and incalculable.

Postmaster-General Vilas has just had an amusing illustration of the deep-seated aversion to publicity which always animates the worse sort of place-hunters. Applying the principles of civil-service reform to the filling of vacancies in the ranks of post-office inspectors, which are not covered by the letter of the law, Mr. Vilas has prepared a list of questions for every applicant to answer. One of these inquiries is whether the applicant has ever been indicted or tried for a criminal offence, and, in case he has been, he is required to explain all the circumstances under oath. This feature of the examination, we are told and can readily believe, has provoked great indignation and a vast amount of hard swearing, and one spokesman for a large class has given amusing expression to their indignation at such treatment, in the awe-inspiring declaration that "he'll see Vilas in — before he'll answer such impertinent questions," and that he doesn't want an office on such terms.

Secretary Bayard has, in his correspondence with Señor Becerra, the Colombian Minister at Washington, reaffirmed in the most explicit manner the doctrine that not only can there be no paper blockade of an enemy's port, but that no Government can close its own ports in the hands of an enemy, or of insurgents, except by effective blockade. This is the position taken by the British Government in 1861, touching the Southern ports, which our Government acquiesced in as regards ports held by insurgents, having always previously vigorously maintained it as regards enemy's ports. Mr. Bayard also refuses to treat as pirates the war vessels of the Colombian insurgents. They are, as long as they have ports to issue from, de-facto belligerent cruisers, and entitled to neutral recognition as such.

An explanatory statement, semi-official in character, has been put forth in reply to a paragraph of ours on the political action of Mr. James M. Morgan in the Presidential campaign. It is affirmed that Mr. Morgan "has always been a Democrat, and was a supporter of Cleveland." Our reply is, that Mr. Morgan spent most of the campaign period in New York city, and that he was while here openly and notoriously a Blaine partisan, and an earnest believer in the success of the Republican ticket. It is stated further that Mr. Morgan's pamphlet was published "with a view to promoting friendly relations" with Mexico, that it

was "for private distribution," was "in no sense partisan," and that it was published "in ignorance of the fact that Blaine was to be a candidate for the Presidency." It is further asserted that "the pamphlet was designed for circulation in Mexico." Our reply to this is, that the pamphlet itself is the best evidence on all these points, and as it is peculiarly the duty of Mr. Morgan to produce it, he cannot object to secondary evidence of its contents until he furnishes the document itself. Our own impression is, that so far from being intended to promote friendly relations with Mexico, it was a bitter attack upon that country, her people, and her institutions. It may have been intended for "private circulation," but if it was, Mr. Morgan kept that fact to himself. It certainly would need to be circulated very privately indeed, in Mexico, if Mr. Morgan's account of the ordinary treatment of American citizens in that country is correct. If the pamphlet was not intended to be an argument in favor of Blaine's election, it affords a striking instance of "unconscious cerebration," for it was precisely the same argument which was used all through the campaign by the admirers of Mr. Blaine's "vigorous foreign policy." Our conclusion upon the whole matter is, that Mr. James M. Morgan is a soldier of fortune, of Democratic prepossessions, but without fixed principles; that he became convinced that Mr. Blaine would be elected, and hastened to put himself on that side of the fence; that after Mr. Cleveland's election was ascertained, he had recourse to a large family connection in the South, who were glad to coöperate in any plan for billeting him on the Government, and who naturally chose the uttermost parts of the earth for his official domicile.

Our esteemed contemporary, the *Sun*, has an article headed, "What Was He Thinking About?" making the following remarks on Mr. E. J. Phelps's recent speech at the dinner of the Reform Club in Boston:

"What was Minister Phelps thinking about when he chose for the occasion of his last public appearance before sailing for Europe a dinner designed as an ovation to the Schurz of the Fraud of 1876?"

"What was Mr. Phelps thinking about when he told the Schurz of the Fraud of 1876 across the table that his faith in the perpetuity of American institutions rested chiefly on the interest which certain young gentlemen around that same table professed in a system of written examinations for department and Custom-house clerkships?"

"Bah! If the Minister to England thought about it at all, he ought to have gone back to his hotel from the Schurz dinner profoundly ashamed of himself."

What Mr. Phelps was thinking about, esteemed contemporary, nobody but him can tell. But what *you* were thinking about when you passed the summer recommending the young men of the country to vote for Ben Butler for the Presidency you can easily tell, and a great many people want to know. Why do you not do it? You had often described Butler as a cheat, liar, coward, and jobber. What were you thinking about when you produced him as a man fit for the Presidency of the United States? What were you thinking about, too, when you told your readers he would get 153,158 votes in this city? What do you call this whole transaction of yours? How does it differ from "the Fraud of 1876," except in having failed miserably? Bah, and laugh!

Poor Lord Tennyson is furnishing another sad example of that dreadful consequence of failing powers, inability to perceive that one's powers have failed. It is of very common occurrence among old men, but it is only among men of intellectual pursuits, properly so called, that it is conspicuous or painful. In the world of business, when a man's mind begins to decay, he has associates or a family who take prompt measures, if he does not see it himself, to secure his retirement from active work, and the rest of the world knows and cares nothing about the matter. Scholars and scientific men, too, generally become silent or restful as age creeps on. It is generally poets and orators who lag superfluous on the stage, and let the world into the solemn secret of their infirmity. There is no sadder spectacle, and the old man who has no trusted friend or relative to tell him that he has reached "the wayside inn," or who is too headstrong to mind what he says, is indeed unfortunate. There is truly nothing which a man who has ever been great, should watch against more carefully than letting people see him stripped of the powers which once delighted or fired them. It is undignified almost to the point of indecency. The verses on "The Fleet," from Lord Tennyson's pen, which were published on Thursday, are indeed sad reading, coming from the author of "The Charge of the Light Brigade" and the ode on the Duke of Wellington. It would almost seem as if somebody ought to be punished for letting them see the light.

The confusion into which the foreign complications are plunging the political casuists of the Liberal party in England, would be amusing if the crisis were less grave. First of all there is the question whether it was "right" to go to Egypt at all; then whether it was right to prevent Egypt from trying to conquer the Sudan; then whether it was right to let the garrisons perish; and if not, whether it was right to send Gordon to rescue them, and whether, when he could not rescue them, the moral law required *him* to be rescued against his will, or furnished with the means of smashing the Mahdi. After these—all knotty points—comes the question whether a man of peace, like Gladstone, can properly go to war with Russia; and then there is the interesting sub-inquiry, how a man of peace, like Gladstone, must feel with such a lot of miscellaneous wars on his hands. The case of the *Bosphore Égyptien*, too, is furnishing materials for a volume of casuistry. The *Bosphore* is a scurrilous French paper, published at Cairo, which makes a living by attacking the British and predicting their ruin. This excites, say the British, sedition among the natives. Whereupon, on the application of the British, the Egyptian Government, which has no force of its own, suppresses it. Then the French call the Egyptians to account, well knowing it is the British who are really to blame, and the Egyptians, well knowing the same thing, take time to consult the Porte, whose say in the matter is absolutely worthless, and the Porte says it is all right, whereupon the French say the Porte must mind its own business, and that the *Bosphore* must be righted. They are then furnished with "fifty precedents" for its suppression.



If war eventually breaks out on the Afghan frontier, it will be, more largely than wars usually are, an affair of money. The distance to be traversed by the contending armies and their supply trains will tax the financial resources of both countries to a degree wholly unknown in European conflicts, and here England will find her principal advantage. The measure of a nation's prowess in war is the amount of force which it can withdraw from the ordinary vocations of life and employ in the arts of destruction. One nation may have the advantage of another at the outset in better preparedness for war, more numerous and better trained armies and navies, better guns, better means of transportation, better positions, superior valor, superior generalship; but where these are equal, or nearly so, the measure of strength is staying power, and this is nothing else than producing power. How many able-bodied men can be spared from the tasks which procure the nation's subsistence, to be employed in fighting, in making arms, ammunition, and accoutrements, and transporting the same, and in caring for the sick and wounded, without impairing the national resources and lowering the standard of comfort to an unendurable degree? Whatever may be the convenience of Government loans in time of war, it is an economic axiom that a nation must earn the whole of the war expense during the war period, plus its own living. Government loans in time of war, or in anticipation of it, are rarely obtained from foreigners. They are procurable only from the subjects of the belligerent Power. The nation has a certain amount of circulating capital in money and goods which the Government can lay its hands on by loan, either voluntary or forced. It makes no difference, except on principles of justice, whether the loan be voluntary or forced. In either case the things borrowed or taken must be immediately reproduced by the national labor combined with its fixed capital. Otherwise, its means of subsistence are impaired, and may be impaired to the point of famine, as was the case in Germany in the Thirty Years' War. Earning power is therefore the test of a nation's strength in war; the conditions of valor, preparedness, and leadership being equal or nearly so.

If it be true, as is announced, and is likely, that General Graham's forces are to evacuate the Sudan and go to India, it will be a somewhat bitter lesson to the British Jingo. It was they who forced the Government into going into the Sudan at all, and, in doing so, there is hardly a doubt that they brought on the complication in Central Asia. Russia, it is pretty plain, was only waiting to get England well involved in the absurd expedition to Khartum in order to kick over the Boundary Commission and get up a quarrel at the gates of Herat. What must add to the bitterness of Jingo reflections is the fact that although Graham's force may be withdrawn, there are from 7,000 to 8,000 fine troops shut up at Dongola, with nothing to do and sweltering in the sun, who cannot be extricated till the Nile rises in July, long before which time their presence might turn the tide of victory in an action on the Heri-Rud or the Murghab. They are really as useless for the moment as if the Mahdi held

them as prisoners of war. What a light is thrown on the value of the popular notion about the way of getting or keeping "prestige," by the fact that the "gates of India" may be burst open at Herat for want of the men who are trying to capture a loathsome ruined town in Central Africa! In the Indian conflict every soldier from the British isles will count for twice his value in other warfare, because he has not only to stand his own ground, but give steadiness to the native troops. It has long been a saying in India that he is the steel point to the lance of which the sepoy is the shaft, and it is strictly true. In hard-fought fields in India, such as occurred in the Sikh campaigns in 1846-7, the presence of a considerable white force has always been necessary to raise the native morale, and make the Hindoos stand up under heavy pounding. For there soon comes, in all hard fights, the terrible "psychological moment" when the slightest mishap may send Asiatic troops flying in wild confusion, if they have not under their eye the spectacle of European *sang froid*, of the dauntless courage which crowned the heights at Albuera, and rooted Wellington's squares in the soil at Waterloo. Seven or eight thousand men might therefore give invaluable stubbornness, on some desperate day within the next two months, to twenty or thirty thousand Bombay or Madras infantry.

The question what constitutes an effective blockade is likely again to become important during the coming summer by the outbreak of hostilities between England and Russia, but not greatly important after all. Russia has very few ports, and these are all in narrow seas, and would be of little use to her after the outlets were in the enemy's hands. Sweden and Denmark will not be disposed to impede the entrance to the Baltic now any more than in 1854, nor is it likely that the British fleet, once inside, will do any more damage to Russia than it did in that year. It will find the approaches to St. Petersburg and Riga hermetically sealed with torpedoes and shore batteries, and these are all the ports of consequence there are in that quarter. Nor is it likely that the Sultan will make any attempt to close the Dardanelles, first because he probably could not do so if he wished, and secondly, because he probably will not be sorry to have the Russians stirred up in the Black Sea. Odessa will be tightly shut up, Sebastopol again shelled into ruins, and Batum will probably be more or less mauled. But there will be no questions of neutral rights raised by any operations in that quarter. There will be better employment for neutral ships than trying to run the blockade of Russian ports, as they will have a grand chance to compete with Great Britain for the carrying trade of neutral countries. It seems like the irony of fate that the outbreak of the war should catch us with a law on our statute book which will make it impossible for Americans to get any share of the carrying business which Great Britain will perforce have to lose.

The French have brought the Chinese war to a lamentable close as far as prestige is concerned. After all their fighting they keep Tonquin, which they had before, and get nothing. They give up all they asked for before beginning, including the huge indemnity and the island of Formosa. The only thing which

helps in the least to save their pride is the fact that the offer to negotiate came from China; but the Chinese could well afford to make it after their victory of Langson. The French, however, have probably got much moral profit from the affair. It has doubtless greatly abated the colonial fever. When the Tonquin army gets home it will finish it.

A reform of some magnitude, though perhaps more striking than important, is being accomplished in the constitutional organism of Hungary. The Hungarian Upper House consists of a very large number of born legislators, and a much smaller number of members owing their legislative right to a position in the higher ranks of the Church or the civil administration. Every son of a magnate or lord—that is, of a nobleman of the rank of baron and upwards—becomes a magnate with full rights on attaining his majority. The present number embraces many hundreds. Habitually, however, the House of Magnates is frequented only by nobles whose wealth and standing allow them to appear with dignity. The poorer and less cultivated stay away, from the necessities of their various occupations or from a feeling of inferiority. The abler among these seek a field of political activity in the House of Representatives. The House of Magnates, in fact, but very seldom rises to the height of a coördinate branch of the National Legislature. The barrenness of its deliberations and the weakness of its opposition to the will of the popular branch, when clearly expressed by a large majority, have been specially remarkable since the restoration and reform of the Constitution in 1867. Its composition has long been considered an anomaly in theory, though one little felt in practice. Its reform, though generally desired, has been delayed, partly from apathy and partly from the apparent difficulty of achieving it against the majority of the magnates themselves.

Last year, however, when the more conservative and aristocratic portion of the magnates succeeded in defeating M. Tisza's, the Premier's, favorite bill, legalizing mixed marriages between Jews and Christians, with the aid of a large contingent of magnates who rarely appear in their places, the Government firmly resolved on carrying out a vital reform. A bill for the purpose was introduced in the House of Representatives, considerably modified in the House of Magnates, subjected to a compromise committee, and finally carried through in the latter house, and is now, as altered, to go back to the Representatives, where it is sure of a large majority. The main feature of the reform is the exclusion from the ranks of born legislators of all magnates paying less than 3,000 florins in yearly taxes. A number, however, will be elected members for life by their happier fellow-nobles, and a further number may get readmittance by Government appointment. That the bill triumphed is owing, in part, to the self-interest of the wealthier magnates and the skilful manoeuvres of M. Tisza, but chiefly to the indifference of the majority, and the liberalism of many of the victims of the change. The renovated legislative branch is now expected to become, in the true sense of the word, a House of Lords, more conservative and independent, and conscious of its rights and standing.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 22, to THURSDAY, April 23, 1885, inclusive.]

## DOMESTIC.

**PRESIDENT CLEVELAND** has refused to interfere with the sentence of General Swaim, Judge-Advocate-General of the army.

The President on Saturday appointed James Q. Chenoweth, of Texas, to be First Auditor of the Treasury vice R. M. Reynolds, of Alabama, resigned by request. The new appointee has been a resident of Bonham, Texas, for many years. He was an officer in the Confederate army, and has served several terms in the State Legislature of Texas. He is a lawyer by profession and a staunch Democrat.

General Henry J. Hunt, retired, was on Saturday appointed Governor of the Soldiers' Home at Washington vice Colonel Samuel D. Sturgis, Seventh Cavalry; and Captain Robert Catlin, retired, was appointed Deputy-Governor, vice Captain W. Lyman, Fifth Infantry. The changes go into effect May 15, when the officers relieved will join their respective regiments. Army officers express themselves as pleased with the action of the President in placing retired officers in charge of the Home. General Hunt was graduated from West Point in 1839, and saw his first service during the Canada border disturbance in that year. He participated in some of the most important battles of the Mexican war, and won two promotions for his gallantry. In the War of the Rebellion he took an active part, and was made a Brevet Major-General of Volunteers in 1864 for gallantry at Gettysburg and services from Rapidan to Petersburg, and a Brevet Brigadier-General United States Army in 1865 for gallant services on the Peninsula.

The President has signed the commissions of all the Collectors of Internal Revenue appointed since the adjournment of the Senate, including that of Eben F. Pillsbury as Collector for the Third District of Massachusetts.

The appointments of Messrs. Pillsbury, Troup, and Chase have caused a great deal of dissatisfaction in New England. The men represent the spoils faction of their party.

The President has signified his intention to select a Minister to China from California. Both factions of the Democratic party in that State have approved Frank McCoppin, ex-State Senator and ex-Mayor of San Francisco, for the position. Mr. McCoppin has, it is said, steadily opposed the ultra views of the extremists in California on the Chinese question.

The President and the Postmaster-General have decided in the case of General William Ward, Postmaster at Newark, N. J., that there is not enough in the charges made against him of having used his office for political purposes to warrant his removal, and he will therefore be permitted to remain until his term expires.

A. U. Wyman, Treasurer of the United States, has tendered his resignation, to take effect May 1. Mr. Wyman tendered his resignation through the Secretary of the Treasury on the 3d of April, but announcement of the fact was withheld at the request of Secretary Manning, who accepted it the same day on behalf of the President. The Secretary expresses his confidence in Treasurer Wyman and regrets his retirement, which is entirely voluntary. Mr. Wyman was in March last elected Vice-President of the Omaha National Bank at Omaha, Nebraska, and also is to have charge of an important trust company recently established in that city. Mr. C. N. Jordan, formerly cashier of the Third National Bank, New York, and treasurer of the New York, Ontario and Western Railroad Company, was on Wednesday appointed Treasurer in the place of Mr. Wyman. Mr. Jordan has informed the chiefs of divisions that he will not remove any of them for political reasons.

The First Comptroller of the Treasury has recommended to the Secretary that the divisions in his office be reduced from nine to five, and that the force be reduced correspondingly.

Secretary Whitney has written a letter to Commodore John H. Russell, Commandant of the Mare Island (Cal.) Navy-yard, relative to the coercion of the vote of that yard by the foremen at past elections, in which he says: "I find that the same foremen who conducted these proceedings are still in the yard at the various departments. Great complaint is made to me of similar proceedings in other yards; but I have already read sufficient of this sworn testimony to satisfy me that the men who were engaged in that proceeding as foremen, directing and controlling it, should be cleared out of the yard in the interest of decent government; and if any similar proceeding, or anything like it, or any attempt to coerce the vote of the employees of the yard by foremen or superior officers should take place hereafter, whether in the interest of the dominant party or otherwise, I will apply a similar remedy. Appointments in place of the persons discharged will be made temporarily and upon trial until efficient men shall have been obtained."

Five hundred United States troops entered Panama on Friday, took charge of all American property, arrested Aizpuru, the rebel leader, and three of his staff, and cleared the Plaza with a Gatling gun. One rebel was killed and three wounded. This summary action was taken because 700 Colombian troops were on the way from Buenaventura to attack the rebels at Panama, and a conflict would probably have resulted in the burning of the place. Rebel barricades were already erected in the streets. The French Consul issued a violent protest against the action of the Americans. On Saturday night, under an agreement with Aizpuru and the French Consul, the United States troops withdrew from Panama to the railway station. Aizpuru has guaranteed to preserve order, but the insurgents immediately began the work of erecting barricades. On Sunday an extraordinary assembly met in Panama, and Aizpuru was confirmed in his position as President, which he will hold until the arrival of General Vila and the troops from Buenaventura, when a peace commission will be despatched on board the gunboat *Boyaca* for the purpose of negotiating for an amicable arrangement of the troubles. The withdrawal of the United States troops is severely criticised by the native population, who consider it an act of cowardice. Serious trouble is apprehended.

Secretary Whitney on Saturday sent a telegram to Admiral Jouett at Panama, saying: "While deprecating any unnecessary interference, you will exercise your best judgment from time to time after consultation with American consuls and others. The general scope of your duty has been heretofore sufficiently defined, and to what extent military interference is necessary from time to time to carry out former instructions you must necessarily be the judge, always keeping in mind that the necessity is regretted here."

The Colombian National troops arrived at Panama on Tuesday, and demanded that Aizpuru should evacuate the city within forty-eight hours. He expresses his intention of fighting. It is feared that the Colon disaster will be repeated if the two forces come in collision. Hopes are entertained that the United States troops may avert the disaster. The French Consul at Panama denies that he has protested to his home Government against the action of the United States forces at Panama.

A correspondence between Secretary Bayard and Señor Becerra, the Colombian Minister at Washington, with reference to a decree of the Colombian Government closing certain of its ports to foreign commerce, and virtually declaring the vessels of the insurgents now engaged in hostile operations against Cartagena to be beyond the pale of international law, is

published. Secretary Bayard refuses to recognize a "paper blockade," and on the other point says: "The Government of the United States cannot regard as piratical vessels manned by parties in arms against the Government of the United States of Colombia, when such vessels are passing to and from ports held by such insurgents, or even when attacking ports in the possession of the national Government. In the late civil war the United States, at an early period of the struggle, surrendered their position that those manning the Confederate cruisers were pirates under international law. The United States of Colombia cannot, sooner or later, do otherwise than accept the same view."

Many prominent Democrats on Thursday evening attended the reception given by the Manhattan Club of this city in honor of those members of the organization who have been called to high places by President Cleveland. None of the Cabinet members were able to attend, but Ministers Phelps, Pendleton, and Cox were present.

The Massachusetts Reform Club tendered a complimentary dinner to Carl Schurz on Friday evening at the Parker House, Boston. John S. Farlow presided, and among the guests present were Minister Phelps, Leopold Morse, William G. Russell, the Rev. James Freeman Clarke, Charles Theodore Russell, Professor Charles E. Norton, and John M. Forbes.

Judge Charles Daniels has granted a mandamus against the Common Council of Buffalo to compel them to appropriate \$1,250 for the city's Civil-Service Commission.

In the Assembly at Albany, on Wednesday, the bill to exempt soldiers and sailors from the provisions of the Civil-Service Law was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 82 to 16, the affirmative votes being equally divided between Republicans and Democrats. The Comptroller's bill legalizing the State's title to its forestry lands was also passed. The Senate passed a resolution for final adjournment on May 15. On Thursday evening it ordered the Field Civil Code to a third reading by a vote of 13 to 9.

The Assembly passed the Skating-Rink Bill on Monday, and the bill giving the District Attorney of this city a fifth assistant with a salary of \$7,500. On Tuesday the Gas Bill was ordered to a third reading in the Assembly. The Palmer Prison-Labor Bill was defeated. The Theatrical License Bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday.

General Grant continues to improve. His sixty-third birthday anniversary was celebrated at many places on Monday.

Isaac W. England, publisher of the *Sun*, died on Saturday evening at his home in Ridgewood, N. J. Mr. England was born in Twerton, a suburb of Bath, England, on February 16, 1832. After working as a book-binder's apprentice, he came to this country in his seventeenth year. Becoming a reporter for the *Tribune*, he was promoted to the city editorship. Then he became an associate editor of the *Chicago Republican*, and next the editor of the *Jersey City Times*. About seventeen years ago he joined with Charles A. Dana and others in the purchase of the *Sun*, with which he afterward remained connected. As receiver of the business of the late Frank Leslie, he managed an important trust with excellent results.

The Rev. Leonard Withington, D.D., the oldest Congregational minister in the United States, died on Wednesday, at his residence in Newbury, Mass., at the age of ninety-six years. He was graduated from Yale College in 1814.

## FOREIGN.

The Russian reply to the communication sent to M. de Giers, after the receipt of Sir Peter Lumsden's supplementary report on the battle of March 30, was reported on Wednesday to have been received in London. M. de Giers replied curtly that Russia declined to enter upon any further discussion of the Panjdeh incident.



In the House of Commons on Thursday Mr. Gladstone, in replying to an inquiry made by Sir Stafford Northcote, said that there was no intention of laying further papers touching the Afghan situation upon the table before asking for a vote upon the war credits already submitted to the House. The Government, Mr. Gladstone continued, were engaged in a correspondence of extreme gravity with Russia. It was impossible to make now a complete statement of the nature of that correspondence, while no partial statement could be given without the greatest risk of creating misapprehension. The Government estimate requires that 35,000 men shall be added to the present force of the army. Mr. Gladstone on Friday afternoon refused to answer questions in regard to the Afghan affair, because every such answer would be an announcement to the Russian Government.

Notwithstanding the protest of Mr. Gladstone, the House of Commons on Friday night adopted by 72 to 56 an amendment to the bill for the registration of voters in Ireland, by which the charges for the registration are to be provided for by the General Government, and not by local rates. This will cost £130,000 yearly. It is believed that the Government will endeavor to reverse the vote in a fuller House.

It was reported in London on Monday that Russia had consented to the appointment of a special mixed commission to examine into the facts relating to the reports of General Komaroff and Sir Peter Lumsden, and to decide which is correct. If England refuses to accept these proposals, the Russian Ambassador will be withdrawn and negotiations will cease.

A sensation was caused in London political circles on Monday by the publication of a St. Petersburg despatch to Reuter's Telegram Company as follows: "War between Russia and England is now regarded as inevitable. The Czar leaves to-day for Moscow, and from that historic city he will issue his manifesto or declaration of war if such an extreme measure should become necessary." The report of the Czar's departure for Moscow has not been confirmed.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, read a telegram dated April 25, from Sir Peter Lumsden, stating that Mr. Stephen, a member of the Commission, had started for London, bearing with him maps of the disputed zone, also a detailed statement of all the circumstances leading up to and attending the Panjdeh affair. The telegram also stated that Sir Peter Lumsden would himself forward to Earl Granville, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, a statement showing the actual position of affairs as they now stand. The Government members in the House of Commons received this news of the departure of Mr. Stephen for London with evident satisfaction. Mr. Ritchie, Conservative, asked if the Government proposed to suspend the negotiations now in progress with Russia until after the arrival of Mr. Stephen. Mr. Gladstone answered with a firm and dignified "No."

In the House of Commons on Monday night Mr. Gladstone spoke for one hour on moving the vote of credit. He was listened to with deep attention, and his words created a profound sensation. The speech is acknowledged to be one of his greatest efforts, and it has created the general opinion that war is inevitable. So complete was the effect of Mr. Gladstone's words that the House voted the entire credit of \$55,000,000 without a single reply by the Opposition. Among the significant points of his speech were the following: He urged that the House vote the Government the entire \$55,000,000 *en bloc*. A time had come when it was necessary to have the resources of the empire well in hand. In regard to the Sudan, El Mahdi was only a shadow of his former self in power or influence, and operations in that region had lost much of their significance. England's possession of Khartum would not put a stop to the slave trade, and, therefore, it would

be useless to shed blood and treasure in the Sudan. In regard to the Afghan dispute, he said the Government submitted its case upon facts with which the whole world is acquainted. There exists abundant cause for the war preparations which are being carried on. The starting point was the obligation to the Amir, which should be fulfilled in no stinted manner. The cause of the collision was perhaps doubtful, but it was certain that the Russians were the attacking party, and that the Afghans suffered in life, spirit, and repute. "Knowing that a blow has been struck at the credit and authority of our ally," he said, "we are unable to close the book and to say we will not look into it any more. We must do our best to have right done in the matter. Therefore there is a cause for war preparations."

From two trustworthy sources reports were received in London on Tuesday morning of another battle on the Afghan frontier between Afghans and Russians. One thousand seven hundred of the latter were engaged, and nearly all are reported to have been killed. Mr. Gladstone said in Parliament, on Tuesday afternoon, that no official confirmation of the rumor had been received. He was asked whether Russia had withdrawn from her agreement not to occupy Herat, and replied "No."

The London Standard received advices late on Tuesday, from its correspondent with Sir Peter Lumsden, that the Russians have occupied Merutchak, twenty miles south of Panjdeh, on the Murghab River. The Amir, while careless about Panjdeh, attached great importance to Merutchak.

It is understood that the immediate withdrawal of the British troops from Suakim has been decided upon.

British transports at Woolwich have been ordered to load in the future until otherwise instructed all their war stores for India instead of Suakim. The Government has ordered the immediate construction of forty gunboats. These new gunboats are to be, according to the Admiralty specifications, of a new type of naval architecture. They will carry light shell guns for the purpose of destroying torpedo boats, and will have a coal storage capacity which will render them capable of steaming 1,000 miles without recoaling.

Great excitement was caused in the Admiralty Office, Whitehall, London, about 11 o'clock on Thursday morning, by an explosion in a room in the basement of the building. The firemen and police were summoned. A special guard was at once posted, and no person was allowed to enter or depart from the premises until a thorough examination could be made. It was at first supposed that the explosion was caused by the premature discharge of a projectile which had been sent to the Admiralty for examination, but investigation led to the belief that it was caused by an infernal machine. Mr. Edwin N. Swainson, assistant secretary and principal clerk, suffered a severe scalp wound and a slight concussion of the brain. The room and adjacent corridors were badly damaged. The face of a small American clock, blackened by the explosion, together with some pieces of clockwork attached, was found among the debris soon after the explosion. Two suspicious-looking men had been seen in the neighborhood. The later theory of the explosion is that it was the result of private malice against Mr. Swainson.

The French Cabinet at its session on Thursday took up the *Bosphore Egyptien* case, and after a full discussion adopted a line of action to be pursued. France considered Egypt's reply to the French demand for the rehabilitation of the *Bosphore Egyptien* evasive and unsatisfactory, and resolved to despatch another note to Egypt about the matter. The note threatened that unless Egypt gave satisfaction France would adopt active measures to secure it. Excitement was created in Egypt and France on Friday when it became known that M. Barrère, the Consul-General of France to Egypt, had been instructed by his Government to suspend all official relations with Egypt, and

to make the declaration to the Egyptian Government that France declined to sanction the Egyptian financial convention, and reserved to herself complete liberty of action. He delayed his departure later in the day on offers of a compromise by Egypt. The news created a sensation in France. It was considered to be unmistakable evidence that there is an understanding between France and Russia.

Earl Granville on Friday telegraphed instructions to the British Minister to Egypt to support Nubar Pasha to the utmost extremity in his refusal to make reparation for the suppression of the *Bosphore Egyptien*.

In the House of Commons on Monday afternoon Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice, Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, said that he was happy to state that the Government was on the point of arriving at a satisfactory arrangement of the misunderstanding with France growing out of the suppression of the *Bosphore Egyptien*. This arrangement has since been confirmed.

It was reported in Alexandria on Friday that El Mahdi's men had attacked and defeated the Italian forces near Massowah. Later reports do not confirm this. It is asserted that El Mahdi's troops at Umderman are wavering in their loyalty to the prophet.

Cholera has reappeared at Cairo. Seven deaths have occurred.

The Prince and Princess of Wales were enthusiastically welcomed at Belfast on Thursday and Friday. They were received with equal enthusiasm at Omagh on Monday. It is said that the Government will buy a permanent residence in Ireland for Prince Victor, eldest son of the Prince of Wales.

The Prince and Princess of Wales arrived in London from Ireland on Tuesday.

François Joseph Régulier, the distinguished French actor, is dead at the age of seventy-eight. He was a member of the Comédie-Française company from 1831 to 1872, when he retired from the stage. In 1834 he was appointed Professor at the Conservatory, and some of the most noted French actors have been his pupils. He was equally celebrated in comedy and pathos.

The Lower House of the Prussian Landtag on Wednesday rejected, by a vote of 182 to 128, the proposal of Dr. Windthorst, the Ultramontane leader, to repeal the law stopping the temporalities of the Catholic clergy.

A terrible volcanic eruption has occurred in a province at the east end of the Island of Java. A number of plantations have been devastated, and it is feared that fully a hundred persons have been killed.

Five mounted policemen arrived at Battleford on Wednesday from Fort Pitt. They reported that in the attack by Indians one policeman was killed and one wounded. All the other occupants of the post took refuge in the camp of friendly Indians near the post. A slight skirmish occurred on Wednesday between General Middleton's scouts and a few half-breeds. Nobody was injured.

General Middleton's forces on Friday had an engagement with Riel's rebels fifteen miles south of Batoche. The insurgents had taken ground on the edge of a deep ravine, from which they poured a deadly fire into the advancing column. Three houses of the enemy were shelled and many rebels were driven from them to refuge in the ravine. The Indian allies of Riel fought vigorously. The whole number in the ravine was estimated at 300. General Middleton's hat was shot through, but he escaped uninjured.

General Middleton's skirmish with the half-breeds on Friday near Batoche's Crossing turns out to be little less than a serious defeat for him. He lost nineteen killed and fifty wounded. He was reported on Tuesday to be pursuing the enemy with only 120 mounted men, leaving the rest of his force behind. It is feared he will meet the fate of Custer.

## THE LAWYERS AND THE FIELD CODE.

WHATEVER be the fate of the attempt to force a civil code upon the people of this State, it has had at least one effect that is highly gratifying. It has disclosed among lawyers an amount of public spirit much greater than they have been generally supposed to possess; greater, perhaps, than they would have been disposed to credit to themselves. There is an analogy between the profession of the law and that of arms: both exist from the necessity of fighting, and yet their value is the highest when their existence averts fighting. As most soldiers look to war as the principal means of their advancement, so, it is thought, most lawyers view litigation with complacency; and whenever members of either profession have exerted themselves to lessen the occasions of controversy, their course has been recognized as patriotic and self-sacrificing. Since it is unquestionably the general opinion among lawyers that the adoption of the Field Code will, for a time at least, greatly increase litigation, the spirited resistance offered by the leaders of the profession to this measure cannot be explained by a reference to selfish motives.

There is, however, a further and very peculiar significance in this attitude of so large and influential a portion of the bar. A familiarity with that wonderful growth called the common law creates a certain unconscious tendency or habit of mind that has had much to do with the maintenance of our political institutions. No doubt many lawyers have a kind of legal conscience. To them an irregularity is a sin, and extensive innovations are sacrilegious. But beyond this blind conservatism there is a wholesome and, if we may so speak, a rational instinct—not improbably strengthened by heredity—the instinct for legal continuity. According to the common law there is nothing new under the sun, in the way of principles. It is of its very essence that every case as it arises shall be decided according to precedent. No matter how novel the circumstances, English courts will always discover a sufficient likeness to those of decided cases to enable them to apply established maxims. At first, when precedents were few and reports were not printed, decisions were necessarily somewhat arbitrary, and hence the common law is said to be judge-made law. But as reports have multiplied it has become quite rare for a case to arise (except under a statute) for which there is no parallel, and the office of a court is now to examine the cases brought to its attention by counsel, and to adopt in general the results of their researches. Hence in modern times our law has been made not by the judges alone, but by the bar. Nothing in our legal history is more significant than the sensitiveness of courts to the opinion of the profession. Hardly any court would venture to declare that to be law which the leaders of the bar held not to be law, and decisions are not unfrequently reconsidered when found to be generally unsatisfactory.

Although this might seem to support the theory of certain logicians, that all reasoning is from particulars to particulars, yet in process of time a very considerable body of general principles has been developed, and these principles are constantly applied to the settlement of cases. Here, then, say the believers in

codification, is the field for reform. These scattered rules should be collected, classified, and clearly expressed, so that laymen as well as lawyers may be able to get at them easily. But, it is to be remembered, at present these rules are really condensed cases. Looked at independently of their origin, they seem absurd, unintelligible, and repulsive, but viewed historically they are on the whole necessary and consistent. It is the dread of interrupting this historical continuity that renders lawyers so conservative. They know now that a judge cannot knock them over with some sweeping general principle, because they are well acquainted with the qualifications, limitations, and exceptions attached by the common law to such principles. They are familiar, too, with the established meaning of a great many words and forms of words, and have learned to anticipate most of the ordinary contingencies in the affairs of men under the present system of rights; so that when a lawyer draws a legal instrument he feels that he has made himself intelligible to the profession, and that his work will be supported by those who may have occasion to examine it. He feels this because he knows that he has built upon the solid foundation of well-defined and careful usage; he has done nothing that has not been done and approved before.

Now, if the common law were codified with the understanding that the law was in no case changed but only stated, and that the code was to be interpreted by the common law, and if only established phraseology were used, the apprehensions of lawyers might be allayed. But as it is, they see clearly that a period of most trying uncertainty threatens them. Every lawyer hates a statute until it has been interpreted by the courts and thus made a part of the common law, and no part of the work of courts is more laborious or repulsive than that of determining the true intent of legislatures. There is no system or continuity about statutes. The decision of one court is a guide to the decision of other courts, but the act of one legislature may have no relation whatever to the acts of its predecessors or successors. Hence there results a mass of legislation that is inconsistent with itself and often irreconcilable with existing law, and lawyers have no means of settling their perplexities. It is an old saying that he must be a poor lawyer who cannot answer a question about the common law, or who will answer a question about statute law without going to his books. The reason is that the statute is not a development of the law derived from cases, not the result of induction, but the work of some few men, perhaps of a single man, and there is nothing but its own language to indicate its meaning.

It is obvious that the proposed code is obnoxious to these well-founded objections to the ordinary legislative method. It is really an addition of several thousand statutes to the law, and the criticism it has received from the profession shows clearly that the greater part of it will have to receive judicial interpretation. It is the product neither of the judges nor of the profession, and the profession will therefore refuse to take the responsibility of giving it a meaning until it has passed through the process of assimilation which they require. No code, we may safely predict, will be successfully ap-

plied unless it first secures the general approbation of the bar.

It does not seem possible to attain this result if the whole law is codified at once. The work should be done piecemeal, in order that each section may receive thorough examination. If this course is followed, much of the evil of uncertainty will be avoided, for difficulties of interpretation will be pointed out in advance and can be removed. Otherwise these difficulties will nullify all the expected advantages. As Chancellor Kent remarked: "The intelligence of the great body of the legislature, in any country, cannot well be brought to bear upon a dense mass of general propositions, in all their ties, relations, and dependencies, or be made to comprehend them; and the legislation by codes becomes essentially the legislation of a single individual."

It would undoubtedly be a matter of gratification to such a "single individual" to have his name go down to posterity as that of the framer of the laws of a great state, rather than to have it associated with a certain deplorable period of professional and judicial dishonor; but considerations of such a nature are hardly germane to the subject. It is of more importance to consider that no one but the author of the code now before the Legislature can know precisely the meaning that he attached to his propositions, and that our rules of interpretation do not allow him to be questioned. The inevitable result of the adoption of such a code would be that the courts must construe it by a comparison of all the preëxisting law. Instead of the desired certainty and simplicity, therefore, we may reasonably anticipate greater confusion and complexity than that under which we now labor. The people of this State, having had their legal house swept and garnished, will find that with new tenants their last state is worse than their first.

## MAHONE'S WORK AS A REPUDIATOR.

It is said by Mahone's friends in Virginia that the Supreme Court decision in favor of receiving bond coupons in payment of taxes undoes all his work, and puts the debt question back where it was when he took hold of it in 1873. This being so, a review of the successive steps by which Mahone demoralized public sentiment in Virginia, and finally made the State believe that it was neither dishonorable nor unwise to repudiate its obligations, becomes a matter of interest.

When Mahone appeared as a leader in 1873, there was no formidable repudiation sentiment in the State. A few people were in favor of getting rid of some of the burdens of taxation by the easy remedy of refusing to pay the State's debts, but the great majority of the voters were against such a course. The repudiation mania, which had made such havoc in many other Southern States, had not spread in Virginia. At that time the debt of the State, under the Funding Act of 1871, was in round numbers about \$30,000,000. It is constantly asserted by Mahone's defenders that one-third of this amount belonged to West Virginia, but this is not true. The debt of the old State, as it existed at the time of the separation of West Virginia, was in round numbers \$45,000,-



000, of which \$5,000,000 was accrued and unpaid interest. In March, 1871, the Legislature of Virginia, after making several unsuccessful efforts to have West Virginia agree upon a division of the debt by arbitration, passed an act providing for the funding and payment of the debt by the surrender of the old bonds and the issue of new bonds of Virginia for two-thirds of the principal and interest, certificates being issued for the remaining one-third, reciting that the one-third would be paid whenever West Virginia provided for her share of the debt. It was about the payment or recognition of this refunded debt of \$30,000,000 that Mahone began his agitation in 1873. He at once demanded a repudiation of \$13,000,000 more, on the ground that the State was not able to bear the burden. The falsity of the claim is easily shown. Under the Federal census of 1870 the true value of the taxable property of Virginia is put down as \$409,000,000, and the actual assessed valuation as \$365,000,000. The annual interest on the debt as refunded was \$1,800,000, or a tax of less than five mills on a dollar on the assessed valuation of the property of the State. The ordinary State expenses of Virginia have averaged about \$700,000 for the past ten years. In order, therefore, to pay the interest on its debt and raise the money necessary for administering its government, Virginia property need be assessed only seven mills on the dollar of actually assessed valuation, or only six mills on the dollar of true valuation. It is absurd to say that the State was unable to pay this.

Mahone's first bill, repudiating outright \$13,000,000 of the debt, was vetoed by Governor Holliday in 1880, but so thoroughly had Mahone aroused the cupidity of the people that the control of the State passed into the hands of his party, who called themselves "Readjusters." In 1879, the creditors, having become thoroughly alarmed, accepted what is known as the McCullough Act, by which the bonds of 1871 were surrendered and new ones accepted in their stead. The effect of this readjustment was really a repudiation of one-half the interest promised in 1871.

The success of this scheme had the natural effect of encouraging further measures of the same sort, and in February, 1882, what is known as the Riddleberger bill was passed, and is now the law of Virginia. This put aside all former settlements, repudiated the entire interest for nine years from 1861, and directed a new issue of bonds. What it really accomplished was a reduction in interest from 6 to 3 per cent., and a reduction of the debt at one stroke from \$30,000,000 to \$19,000,000. This act provided that coupons of the bonds issued under the act of 1871 should not be receivable for taxes, and the decision of the Supreme Court that they are so receivable reverses the whole of Mahone's work. Briefly summed up, his work was to take the State debt, after one-third of it had been assigned to West Virginia and never accepted by her, induce the people first to repudiate one half the interest on the remaining two-thirds, and then repudiate one-third of this remaining two-thirds, and half the interest on it.

It should not be forgotten that in this infamous work Mahone had the sympathy and support of a Republican national Administration

without which it is fairly doubtful if he could have succeeded. That his success has greatly weakened the sense of public honor in Virginia there is no doubt. All parties there are in favor of repudiation now, because no party can take the opposite course and stand a ghost of a chance of success. There is no State in the South which presents a more pitiable spectacle, and none in which the future of politics is more dark. Whether Mahone runs for Governor this year, or some one of the men who have been his disciples, will make little difference. His "principles" are sure to triumph at the polls, no matter which party wins. A large part of the burden for this disgrace lies at the door of Republican leaders like Mr. Blaine, who made an elaborate defence of Mahone in his remarkable "History," and like Mr. William Walter Phelps, who introduced Mahone at the first Blaine ratification meeting in Washington, in July last, as the "Little Napoleon of Readjustment." With the exception of the dubbing of Ferdinand Ward as the "Napoleon of Finance," there has not been in recent times a tribute of admiration so astounding as that.

#### THE GREAT RUSSIAN BANK SWINDLE.

It is a rather curious coincidence that at about the same time that the swindling operations of President Fish, of the Marine National Bank of this city, in connection with his fellow-conspirator Ward, were exposed in this country, even more extraordinary frauds by the manager of a bank were disclosed in Russia, and the trials of the two defaulting officials occurred within a few weeks of each other in Moscow and in New York. The developments in the Russian case were so startling, both in themselves and as throwing light upon the condition of things in that country, that they challenge world-wide attention.

The Bank of Skopin was established in the town of that name, in the Government of Riazan, in the year 1863, at a time when there was considerable industrial activity and a prospect of success for a well-managed enterprise of that sort. It was a communal, and not a strictly Government, institution, but still was under the control of the Ministries of the Interior and Finance, to the latter of which it was required by law to render periodical reports in detail of its operations and condition. The managership of the bank was given to one Rykov, despite the fact that he had notoriously been guilty, while previously holding a position of trust, of gross corruption, the few protests of the Skopin people being overruled by the authorities. There is every reason to believe that for a while Rykov administered his place honestly, but as early as 1868, it was ultimately discovered, he had entered upon the remarkable career of fraud which has made him unique even among Russian swindlers.

In that year there was a deficit of 54,000 rubles (about \$42,000) in the bank's funds, and when the periodical report to the Minister of Finance had to be made, Rykov simply drew up a false balance sheet, which not only concealed the deficiency, but represented the condition of the bank as so exceptionally satisfactory that it immediately began to draw deposits

from all parts of the country. From this time on, Rykov's methods were an ingenious combination of the sharpest tricks played by James D. Fish, Ferdinand Ward, and Mrs. Howe, of the Woman's Bank in Boston, which made such a sensation when it went to pieces a few years ago. Although he was really doing no legitimate business whatever, he began to offer 7½ per cent. interest on deposits at a time when the best institutions in Russia were paying only 5 per cent., and he was straightway overwhelmed with the money of a host of dupes. To make a pretence of showing how his exceptional profits were earned, he regularly made entries in the bank's books of mythical financial operations, and any curious inquirer might see the record of discounts, loans, purchases, and sales, which were all of the most gratifying nature, but were also all of them purely fictitious. An illustration of Rykov's ways is the fact that every December an old man in the pay of the bank, who was so illiterate that he could hardly write his own name, used to sign a contract for the purchase of several millions' worth of imaginary securities, and this transaction, with the imaginary profit upon it, always appeared on the bogus balance-sheet sent to the authorities and published in the official journal. Paper was made on an extensive scale, and with little attempt at disguise. One man of straw would draw on another man of straw for fifty or a hundred thousand rubles, discount the bill and get the money, and then the operation would be reversed. Porters and messengers of the bank figured in the books as debtors for tens of thousands of rubles taken by their masters.

For fifteen long years, incredible as it may seem, this gigantic swindle went on unchecked, Rykov meanwhile living on a lavish scale, winning the favor of the clergy by subsidizing churches, and acquiring the reputation of a philanthropist by his large gifts to charitable and educational institutions. All these benefactions were stolen from the bank, and were entered on the books as payments to dummy customers. Skopin is a small provincial town where everybody knows about everybody else's affairs, and of course such wholesale and open frauds could not go on year after year without people finding them out. The local public did know the state of affairs—knew it so well that, when the crash finally came, there was not one customer of the bank in Skopin, and only nineteen of the six thousand victims were found in the entire Government of Riazan. With the corruption so notorious that everybody in the region knew the bank to be a fraud, how was it possible for the swindle to go on year after year without attracting the attention of the authorities?

The answer to this question throws a flood of light upon the state of Russian society and the character of the government. Rykov escaped so long simply because he had made himself an autocrat, and had corrupted everybody through whom his misdeeds might be exposed. The mayor, the town clerk, the chief of police, in short, every local officer, was constantly in his pay. The monthly audit required by law from officers of the municipality was a farce; the books were never looked at, the cash was never counted, and the balance-sheet was signed without being examined. A veritable reign of terror prevailed. So absolute was Rykov's power

that he did not hesitate, through the complaisant police, to exile people who chanced to offend him, on no better pretext than that they were "evil-intentioned" men, and even in one case because the objectionable young man had whistled while passing the manager in the public garden! So all-pervading was his power that honest citizens were absolutely cut off for a long while from communication with the outside world, when at last, in despair of securing redress from the authorities, they sought to reach the press. The Postmaster received a monthly allowance from Rykov, in consideration of which he intercepted and handed to his employer every letter addressed to a newspaper or to any other objectionable quarter, while the telegraph operator rendered similar service whenever recourse was had to the wires. In this way Rykov thwarted the efforts of a few public-spirited citizens to expose his misdeeds for the space of two years. It was at last only through the enterprise and courage of one of the very few liberal journals which still survive that the facts were brought out, the official press refusing to publish anything about the matter.

When the crash came, it was complete and terrible. The balance-sheet showed twelve million rubles on hand, but the strong-room was empty and the bill-cases were filled with bogus paper. Rykov earnestly protested on his trial against being called "a monster," and pronounced the charge that he had stolen millions "a gross calumny," protesting, with an indignant gesture, that "I stole but one million—one million only." It appears to be true that he did take only one million for his own personal use, but this was simply because he had to spend the other millions as hush money. There was no limit to the scope of his operations in this direction. All the facts were not brought out on the trial, but enough was shown to indicate plainly that the highest officials of the empire must long have been privy to the fraud. It was proved that the Governor, the Vice-Governor, and all the members of the Provincial Government were bribed to silence; and the utter indifference of the Ministers of State who were appealed to at various times, is, doubtless, attributable to the same potent motive. Indeed, the whole episode is but an epitome of the Russian Government.

#### A UNIVERSAL DAY.

THE International Meridian Conference of last summer was called for two purposes. The first was to settle on some first meridian from which terrestrial longitudes should be counted; the second to adopt or to recommend for adoption a Universal Day. There was no important opposition to the adoption of the meridian of Greenwich as the prime meridian from which longitudes are in future to be counted, to the east, 180°, and to the west, 180°. The final vote on this proposition was 22 in the affirmative, 1 (San Domingo) in the negative, 2 (Brazil, France) not voting. The resolution in regard to the Universal Day provided that such day should be the civil day of Greenwich. This was adopted by the following vote: ayes 15; nays 2; not voting, 7.

The Conference was merely a consultative body, and no real effect could be given to its recommendations until the scientific men of each country had practically accepted its conclusions, and until the proper authority within each state had at least legalized the new prime meridian

and the Universal Day. It was tolerably obvious from the first that France was not likely to fall in with the new arrangement. The friends of this said, however, that no country could afford to remain outside of a truly international agreement, and expected that in a little time the whole world would be reaping the advantages of their action, and that even the small amount of confusion now existing on account of differences of local time would soon disappear.

It is interesting to trace what the real effect of the Conference has been, and to compare it with these hopes. With regard to the adoption of Greenwich as the prime meridian for longitudes, the effect of the Conference has been to give some impetus to a movement which was already strong. A vast majority of the nautical charts in use by the ships of all nations are made by the British Admiralty; and the charts of several other nations have the Greenwich longitudes given, as well as the longitudes from the national meridian. The oceans may already be said to be divided by Greenwich meridians. Very many of the standard maps already have Greenwich longitudes given in at least one margin. The effect of the Conference will doubtless be to increase the number of maps with a double enumeration.

It is with regard to the Universal Day that the Conference has undoubtedly done far more harm than good; and it is worth while to sketch briefly the action of each country. It must be remembered that no official or international action has yet been taken by any country. We have only the declarations of recognized scientific authorities by which to judge. England was the first to move. The Astronomer Royal (Mr. Christie) announced that he intended to use the universal time in the internal affairs of the Greenwich Observatory from January 1, 1885. Under ordinary circumstances, January 1 (astronomical date) would have commenced with the transit of the sun over the Greenwich meridian. January 1 (civil date, which is the universal date) commenced at the preceding midnight. The clocks were then twelve hours too slow. This change was made not only in the observatory clocks, but in the public clock in Greenwich Park. *Nature* publishes weekly an almanac in the new time; the *Nautical Almanac* is already printed in the old reckoning up to 1887, and the director (Doctor Hind) has made no statement of his intentions.

The official action of the United States is recorded in Executive Document No. 78 of the last Congress. On December 4, 1884, the Superintendent of the Naval Observatory (Admiral Franklin) issued an order prescribing the use of the Universal Day in the Observatory, and he officially informed the superintendent of the *American Ephemeris* (Professor Newcomb) of the fact. Professor Newcomb replied in a letter (December 6), giving his reasons why the Universal Day should not be adopted. Admiral Franklin then addressed a circular to American astronomers, asking for their opinions on the question of whether the new time should be introduced at all, and, if introduced, as to what date would be the most suitable. Replies were received from eleven astronomers, only two of whom decidedly opposed the change. They both set 1890 as the earliest date for the introduction of the new time. The order prescribing the use of the universal time in the Naval Observatory was thereupon rescinded by the superintendent, who had apparently been convinced that he was making a mistake. It is more than probable that several of the replies favorable to the change were written hastily, under the impression that it was a foregone conclusion; and that the mature conviction of the writers is at present opposed to any change. The reckoning of time will not be

changed in our *Ephemeris*, and it is safe to say that the United States will not adopt the Universal Day in any form at present.

Germany was the next to speak. Professor Foerster, the Director of the Berlin Observatory, Professor Auwers, the President of the German Astronomical Society (which prints the *Astronomische Nachrichten*), and Professor Tietjen, the Director of the *Berliner Jahrbuch*, have officially declared that they will have nothing to do with the new day, in any form.

Affairs were now sufficiently confused, but if they had stopped here all would have been well. The Astronomer Royal would have retreated from his position, and the example of England, France, Germany, and the United States would have been followed by all the other nations. The Universal Day would have died a natural death, and the net result of the Conference would have been the authoritative endorsement of Greenwich as a first meridian for longitude. But the confusion which was to have been obviated now begins. Professor Oppolzer, of Vienna, who is the first astronomer of Austria and the Director of its Geodetic Survey, announces his adherence to the new day, and its adoption in a very important publication of his own, a list of all the solar and lunar eclipses between 1200 B. C. and 2100 A. D. His example will undoubtedly carry many South German astronomers with him. Furthermore, the news comes from Russia that Director von Struve, of the Pulkowa Observatory, intends also to adopt the new day in the internal affairs of his observatory. If this is done, it is more than probable that all other Russian observatories will follow. It should be plainly said that the confusion is now a matter for the astronomers alone. The Universal Day had no chance of introduction into the world's business affairs from the moment when two or three of the leading nations pronounced against it. Our Australian telegrams, as heretofore, will be dated in Melbourne time, and we shall apply the difference of longitude as always. The astronomers—to whom it makes the least possible difference what kind of time is used, provided only that they know exactly what it is—have so far done their very best to make this vital point doubtful to their successors. If the plain man in A. D. 2100 finds Professor Oppolzer's predicted eclipse to be exactly right, as he will when the proper allowances have been made, he may say that the second proposal of the Washington Conference has not done so much harm after all. Meanwhile, the earth will rotate on its axis, and local times will vary in the future as they have in the past.

#### THE RUSSIAN MENACE AND THE DEFENCE OF INDIA.

LONDON, April 14.

THE battle on the Murghab between the Russians and the Afghans has diminished almost to nothing the hope of preserving peace between Great Britain and Russia. The war, if war there be, will in one respect be a most singular one, for we shall be fighting against Russia for the possession of a city—Herat—distant 900 miles from the Indus, the natural frontier of India, but which, nevertheless, we have chosen to regard as "the key of India." There are, it seems to me, two questions suggested by this fact which must greatly perplex a distant spectator. The first is, how an empire such as British India should need to be defended at such a vast distance from its proper boundary. The second, why, if Herat was a position of such unapproachable importance, it was not long ago occupied by a British force, and its connection with India thoroughly secured and protected. To indicate the answer to these questions is the object of the present letter.



"The Russian menace" is a danger which has occupied the minds of Indian administrators for more than half a century—from a time, that is, anterior to the Russians' earliest and disastrous attempt to penetrate to Khiva. It was seen by them that, sooner or later, Russian power must extend over Central Asia until it reached the confines of Afghanistan, just as English power had extended over India until it reached the barriers of the Himalaya. And of necessity this anticipation led on to the question of how we were to meet an invasion of India, supposing that the Russians in Central Asia should attempt it. Upon this question officials in India have been sharply divided into two parties—those who would await a Russian attack upon the Indus, the natural frontier of Hindustan, and those who were of opinion that Russia must be met and defeated at Herat if we wished to hold India in peace and security. The best-known upholders of the former view were, among civilians, Lord Dalhousie and Sir John Lawrence; and among military men, Sir Charles Napier and Sir James Outram.

Their reasoning, briefly stated, was as follows: For an invasion of British India from Central Asia, there is only one practicable line of attack. This line, starting from Herat as its base, passes through Kandahar, Quetta, the Bolan Pass, and the Sinde Desert, until it strikes the Indus at Sukkur. India has other gates, it is true, but this one represents the line of least resistance, and would therefore be the one chosen by an invading army. It is about nine hundred miles in length, across a country most scantily supplied with water, and producing food altogether insufficient to supply the wants of an army strong enough to attempt the invasion of India. Such an army would be obliged to make its long and laborious march encumbered by an immense baggage train, and, upon arriving at the Indus, would be obliged to fight, with the waterless Sinde Desert at its back, an English army in a carefully selected and entrenched position. Success under such circumstances would be impossible, while defeat would mean annihilation. This, however, does not exhaust the difficulties of the attempt. During the long march from Herat to Quetta, the flank of the invading army would be exposed to the attacks of the Afghans, inasmuch that if these mountaineers could be induced to act vigorously upon its communications, an advance would become impossible. Now the surest, indeed the only, way to preserve the confidence of the Afghans and secure their coöperation when the need for it arose, was studiously to abstain from even seeming to menace the savage independence which they prized above all things. From all these facts, the "masterly inactivity" school (as it was nicknamed) argued that the soundest and most economical policy was not to anticipate a Russian invasion by an advance across Afghanistan, but to await its advent within our proper frontier.

Looking back at the incidents of the past fifty years in India, no one can deny that it would have been far better for England had this policy been steadily adhered to. We should have been spared the infamy of two unprovoked and unsuccessful invasions of Afghanistan. The sixty or seventy millions of money that were flung away in these abortive enterprises might have been applied to the reduction of taxation in India, or to the completion of our railway lines of communication. And if Russia had at last threatened the independence of Afghanistan, the Afghans would have accepted our assistance, and hailed the entry of our troops among their hills as that of friends whose kindly feelings toward them had been tried and tested during half a century. Unhappily the constitution of the British Government in India is such that a steady adherence to a quiet and unambitious policy is practically im-

possible. The military element in it is too conspicuous and powerful a factor to admit of such a thing. A soldier like Sir Charles Napier, who has won his spurs elsewhere, can weigh such a question as the defence of India in the scales of unbiassed reason, but not so younger men, who have gone into long exile in India for the sake of the chances of adventure and distinction which an Indian career has to offer. It is mainly of such men that the "forward" school—in opposition to the "masterly inactivity" men—has been composed. This party urged that Herat was "the key of India" because it was as a "gate" which gave an invader a passage through the mountain barrier of the Hindu Kush, and that therefore it was imperative to meet and beat back an invader at that point.

It was plain, however, that Herat could not be safely held by a British garrison unless the intervening country between that city and the Indus was also in our hands, and this was impossible until Afghanistan had been subjugated and pacified. The "forward" school, to do them justice, would not have shrunk from such an enterprise if the financial difficulty had not stood in their way. Where was the money to come from? It was impossible to get it from the Indian taxpayer, and it was quite certain that John Bull would utterly refuse to advance it from his pocket. A middle course had, therefore, to be adopted—that, namely, of contracting alliances with the Amirs of Kabul—a policy against which Lord Lawrence never ceased to protest and warn the nation, and to which this war with Russia, if war there should be, is directly due. The policy has, in point of fact, always endeavored to work out an impossibility. Its object was to establish at Kabul an Amir that should combine the contradictory attributes of being a puppet in the hands of the English rulers of India, and of being strong in the support and confidence of his own subjects. For unless he was the first he would not admit British garrisons into Herat and Kandahar, and unless he possessed the second, English soldiers would not be able to enter his country without causing a general insurrection against him and us.

In 1838 Lord Auckland was the Governor-General of India, and the official clique which surrounded him was composed exclusively of men of the "forward" school. At this time Dost Mohammed Khan was the Amir of Kabul. He was a man of great capacity, feared and respected by the Afghans, and sincerely desirous to be upon terms of friendship with the English in India. But clearly he was no puppet of our creating. He had won the position he occupied by dint of his own talents, and, therefore, Lord Auckland and his advisers rejected his proposals and actually invaded his country in order to set up a creature of their own. The result of this wise and honorable attempt is well known. Our puppet was murdered by his own (so-called) subjects; British troops and camp followers, to the number of 12,000, were cut to pieces in the Khoord Kabul Pass by the infuriated Afghans; and in the end we restored Dost Mohammed to the position of Amir, and abandoned the country. This was the first attempt of the "forward" school to translate their theories into practice, and it led to their effacement in Indian politics for the space of forty years. But during that period the men who had passed through the experience of the first war in Afghanistan—the Lawrence brothers, Sir James Outram, and others—were either dead or had long left India; and when Lord Lytton arrived in India to give effect to Lord Beaconsfield's "spirited foreign policy," he had no difficulty in surrounding himself with just such a clique as that which led Lord Auckland to his fate—young, enterprising, and ambitious military men, eager for distinction and the

honors and more material rewards which accompany it.

Afghanistan had greatly profited by the long repose from British intervention which had resulted from the last disastrous war. Shir Ali, the son of Dost Mohammed Khan, had exhibited a capacity for government not inferior to that of his father; and Afghanistan was precisely as, in our official language, we always professed that we wished to see it—it was "strong, friendly, and independent." But, like his father Dost Mohammed, it could not be said of Shir Ali that he was a puppet of English manufacture; and by Lord Lytton and the officials who surrounded him, the strength and independence of Shir Ali were considered as valid reasons for his overthrow. What if he should use his strength and independence to ally himself with the Russians and against us? Accordingly, Afghanistan was a second time invaded. The civilizing labors of forty years were destroyed in as many days. The hatred kindled by the first invasion of Afghanistan was revived among its people in increased intensity by this second attack upon their lives, their homes, and their independence. But, as in 1838, we found in 1878 that though we could ravage and lay waste the country, we could neither subdue nor hold it except at a cost in men and money that was utterly ruinous. We finally withdrew, leaving behind us, as a memorial of our presence, an Amir of the puppet description. That Abd-al-Rahman Khan is a man of some strength of character, cannot be denied; and had he won his present position in any fair and honorable way, he might have done well enough. As it is, he has succeeded in getting along thus far by means of an English subsidy, and a series of atrocious murders, the victims of which have been the chief ministers of Shir Ali and the men who organized the persistent resistance to the last English invasion. In this way he has incurred the bitter hatred of the great body of his subjects; and while he is not in a position to resist a demand for the entrance of British troops to Herat, Kandahar, or anywhere else, it is all but certain that his authority would not survive their admission. And thus an English army confronting a Russian advance at Herat would have its communications menaced by an insurgent Afghanist population behind it.

This is not all. An alliance with the Amir of Kabul would have been of no service to us, unless the Amir had also been the ruler of Herat. In order to effect this, English politicians of the "forward" school have been obliged to give an arbitrary extension to the (so-called) kingdom of Afghanistan, so as to include within it the valley of the Heri-Rud, in which Herat stands, and all the country known as Balkh and Badakhshan, which lies between the Oxus and the Hindu Kush. Now, no Afghans live in this tract of country. The Herat valley is peopled by Persians, and the remaining parts by Turcomans and Usbeks. All alike hate the Afghan domination, as rapacious and oppressive; and the population of the Herat valley, being in the main Sheeyas, are divided from their rulers in religion as well as race and language. The consequence is that all along the frontier at present in dispute the advance of the Russians is awaited by the population with eagerness, as insuring their emancipation from a tyranny which they detest. So much is admitted by even such partial witnesses as the newspaper correspondents with Sir Peter Lumsden's mission; and the probability is that if a Russian army appeared at the gates of Herat before our troops could arrive, the population would rise in their favor, and the Afghan garrison be obliged to fly or to surrender.

Thus it will be seen that the policy of the

"forward" school has failed at every point. It has availed nothing toward arresting the progress of Russia in Central Asia. It has kindled in the minds of the Afghans a bitter, just, and enduring hatred of ourselves. And, instead of an alliance with the people, it has substituted an alliance with a puppet Amir whom we have forced at the sword's point upon them. The officials in India and the newspapers in London who are responsible for these suicidal performances are also the great generators of those irrational paroxysms of Russophobia which periodically assail the people of these islands. The terror is quite genuine, and springs from a true though unavowed conviction that we have been playing into the hands of Russia by the treacherous and violent policy that we have been carrying out in Afghanistan. With the acts of Russia in Central Asia we had no more right to interfere than had the Russians with our acts in India. But so keenly sensitive have we been to the dangers of the situation that we had created for ourselves in Afghanistan, that it was impossible for the Russian Government to do anything in Central Asia without being assailed by our Foreign Office with a volley of impertinent queries, remonstrances, and demands for explanation. All such inquiries on the part of the Foreign Office were accompanied by a vociferous chorus from the London press, consisting of nothing but denunciations of Russian greed, perfidy, and aggressiveness. And thus an enduring sense of exasperation has been established between two great nations. It was not to be expected that Russians, when thus perpetually assailed, should not look about for an opportunity of retaliation. The shrieks of the Jingo press and the copious writings of Indian Russophobists showed them the weak point in our harness. Had we been content to await an invasion upon the banks of the Indus, our success would have been indubitable, if Russia had been insane enough to make the attempt. But at Herat we are weak and Russia is (comparatively speaking) strong.

War is, at present, not declared, but he must be a more sanguine man than the present writer who thinks that a declaration can be long postponed. But though peace is to be earnestly desired, it would be no more than a temporary postponement of the war. It has now been finally decided that India is to be defended, not on the Indus, but upon the further frontier of Afghanistan. There is no retreat from that decision, and it entails the holding of this new frontier with British troops. This cannot be done without the reduction of Afghanistan to a British province, and this will not be effected without a bloody and costly war, in which, if Russia does not formally engage as an ally of the Afghans, Russian officers will fight in the ranks of the enemy.

R. D. OSBORN, Lieut.-Colonel.

#### ENGLISH SENTIMENT IN THE RUSSO-AFGHAN CRISIS.

LONDON, April 18, 1885.

NEARLY thirty years have elapsed since England has been at war with a great European Power; and on no occasion since then has she come so near war as during the last few weeks. In the spring and early summer of 1878 there were for some time apprehensions of a breach with Russia, but the most skilful observers were then of opinion that the English Ministry did not really expect or intend to fight, but were holding high language only to alarm their adversaries. Now, however, there can be no doubt that the present Cabinet have repeatedly been, and are perhaps still at this moment (although the horizon looks somewhat brighter during the last two or three days), seriously anxious. The prepara-

tions they have made and are making, especially the purchase of so many swift passenger steamers for the purpose of turning them into war cruisers, sufficiently prove the reality of the danger; and the fluctuations of our stock markets have had a suddenness and violence which testifies to the gravity of the position. As events may have taken a decisive turn before this letter reaches you, there is no use in filling it with speculations as to the issue. It is more profitable to endeavor to describe the state of the public mind as we have latterly seen it, and to inquire what are the causes which have made it on the one hand so composed, and on the other hand so much less apparently pacific than might have been predicted.

Composed it has certainly been. Despite the extreme sensitiveness not only of the stock market, but of all those markets which a war could in any way affect, the attitude and temper of the people generally has been quiet and dignified. Considering how hot the newspapers usually become at a crisis, the newspapers have been cool—decidedly cooler than in 1878. Yet their temper stands some degrees higher than that of the mass of private persons, even in the middle and upper classes. There is, of course, great curiosity to get the latest news, and constant discussion of the ever-changing aspects of the question. But when one remembers the enormous magnitude of the issues involved, and the way in which they touch every class in the community, the amount of passion and vehemence which one observes in the minds of individual men is less than might have been looked for—less (I think) than was shown in 1878, or during the French and German war of 1870-71, when we were mere spectators.

To what is this phenomenon to be ascribed? Partly to the distance of the scene of action and the darkness which surrounds it. Very few people had any notion, till two months ago, of where Herat, much less Panjdeh and Zulfikar, lay. Even now men's ideas about them are, of course, extremely vague. Communication is slow and difficult. It is extremely hard to get at the real facts, and to know which of the facts are material. Not only, therefore, is the imagination less excited, but the consciousness of ignorance keeps more sober minds in a state of suspended judgment, and disposes them rather to rely on the Executive than to pronounce for themselves upon the significance of events or the course to be adopted. Ignorance, no doubt, exposes men to be misled, but what I remark in the present case is the consciousness of ignorance, which our people have fortunately the good sense to feel; and although some vague declamation against Russia is indulged in, although there is doubtless a measure of prejudice against her, this sentiment has by no means overpowered the disposition to seek for more light.

Much must also be ascribed to the general unity and homogeneity of opinion which prevails. In 1870 the partisans of France and Germany respectively formed strong and bitterly hostile sections, as they did also during your war from 1861 to 1865. All Tories were arrayed on the one side, and most Liberals on the other, so that the ordinary bitterness of domestic parties increased the bitterness with which the questions were debated. At present there is no party division regarding the issues between ourselves and Russia. The Tory party, or rather the aristocratic and military party, is more pronouncedly anti-Russian than the Liberals are, because it holds by the traditions of Lord Beaconsfield's days. But the Liberals generally are scarcely less suspicious of the recent behavior of Russia, and no less willing to draw the sword, should the Government propose to do so. The obvious reason is, that a Liberal Government is in power, whose drafts on the loyalty of its followers will

be met in this instance, as they have been in so many others heretofore. However, there is more than mere party loyalty in this disposition to trust the Executive. The present Government is not only credited with strongly pacific tendencies, but has until now been supposed to be specially well affected to Russia. From 1876 till 1880, Mr. Gladstone was constantly attacked for his supposed subserviency to Russia, and one person prominent in the social if not in the political world, the Duke of Sutherland (although professedly a Whig), went so far as to call him "a Russian agent," at a public meeting held in London at that time. Hence the belief that if this Cabinet declares war it will do so because it cannot help it, because nothing less than the strongest and clearest case exists, because Russia has forced it on us either by palpable bad faith or by a resolution to persist in aggressive measures. I do not say that such conclusions are necessarily right, for it is possible that the Ministry may be mistaken; that they may have misunderstood the facts or misinterpreted the facts, and may be unintentionally doing Russia injustice. Still, it is to the popular mind a most material fact that the Prime Minister is not only conspicuously pacific, conspicuously zealous for economy and a reduction of the public burdens, but has also been hitherto conspicuously free from such anti-Russian prejudices as were charged against the Cabinet of Lord Beaconsfield in 1878.

The same reasons serve to explain that other phenomenon to which I have referred, the absence of popular demonstrations in favor of peace. Strong as the fighting instinct in Englishmen is, the masses of our people are as a whole markedly pacific because they are an industrial and religious people. The working classes have long had a notion that wars are sought by the aristocratic class for its own purposes. They have a strong sense of what the French call the "solidarity of the industrial classes" in all countries, and hate the idea of being taxed to give the rich and the officers the amusement of war. The Nonconformists, who exercise much influence over the middle and a section of the humbler class, are averse to war on religious grounds, and were stimulated in their hostility to it by the struggle against Lord Beaconsfield's aggressive policy. If a Tory Ministry were now in power, we should probably see strong demonstrations against any war they might make, because the working classes, the Nonconformists, and the leaders of the Liberal local organizations over the country would believe (rightly or wrongly) that a war would be due to the generally bellicose tendencies of the Tories. Now that a Liberal Ministry is in power, their mouths are closed. They feel bound to believe that it is as anxious to keep the peace as they are themselves, and throw all the blame on the ambition or perfidy of the hostile Power. Hence we have had practically no agitation against the movements made toward war—none from the Tories, because they have always declared that the advance of Russia must be resisted by arms; none from the Liberals, because they rely on the good intentions of their leaders. Two or three small efforts have been made to obtain expressions of opinion in favor of referring the dispute to arbitration; but these have been faintly supported, not so much from any want of faith in that excellent principle as from a fear of embarrassing the Government, and from the notion that they might be misconstrued by Russia as indicating some want of resolution or union on the part of England.

No such want exists. Whatever strength a people can draw for the prosecution of war from the harmony of its citizens, England would apparently draw in this case. Radical members of Parliament who have been addressing mass meet-



ings of their constituents during the Easter recess, express themselves as somewhat surprised by the heartiness with which declarations of an energetic nature were received. It is plain that the sentiment of national greatness and the sensitiveness to national honor are, even in the working class, not less strong than the attachment to peace, and are fully prepared to support the Ministry should they be driven into war. There might be some revulsion if it should turn out, when all the documents are laid before Parliament, that the causes for war were, after all, not quite adequate; but, on the other hand, the sense of being committed to a fight, and the sort of thrill which effort gives, would be strong enough to counterbalance such a revulsion and to enlist the general and hearty sympathies of the people.

Should peace, on the other hand, be preserved (which many of our shrewdest heads have all along predicted), the judgment on the conduct of the Government will depend on the extent to which they can be shown to have given way to Russia. After this prolonged tension, there will be some sensitiveness on that point. If they have yielded any really substantial advantage to her—anything which can be said to endanger Herat, and with it the western frontier of India—they will incur serious censure and suffer at the general election. If they have merely receded from some claims which they had better have never put forward, having demanded for the Afghans territory which was not really Afghan, the reputation of their diplomacy, already discredited by their dealings with Bismarck, will be further tarnished, but the country, which has begun to think that diplomacy is not the forte of England, will before long forgive them. But while the scales of peace and war still oscillate, it is needless to pursue these ulterior questions. Y.

## Correspondence.

### BIENNIAL SESSIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your remarks on biennial legislative sessions, apropos of Mr. Roosevelt's article, suggest a few words about the results of the system here. Although I am still inclined, on the whole, to favor the plan, I am convinced that it is not an unmixed good.

The conditions of the problem in California are very simple. Given, first, enormous interests controlled by men whose ideas of public policy are indicated in the Huntington letters; second, a Legislature of which, not Mr. Roosevelt's one-third, but probably a clear majority, are open to corrupt influences; and, third, a session of sixty days once in two years, and what will be the result?

The result, as might easily have been predicted, is that the Legislature has just enough time comfortably to pass all the corrupt and mischievous bills that are brought before it, and no time at all for those measures of merely public utility which Mr. Roosevelt's Irishman aptly termed "local bills." With the appropriations and other routine work of two years on hand, there are only a few days of each session available for general legislation. A few well-paid obstructionists can easily stave off any matter on which public and private interests are opposed, while a bill to pay unconstitutional claims or to relieve railroads from taxation slides easily through under suspension of the rules. For the last four years some legislation on the subject of irrigation has been absolutely essential to the peace of the State, but a few individuals, interested in maintaining the present condition of anarchy, have succeeded in preventing any ac-

tion. The bills would be allowed to pass the Assembly about the middle of the session; then they would be elaborately discussed in the Senate until the last day, when there would be just time to vote extra compensation to the clerks and pages, present "testimonials" to the presiding officer, appoint a few junketing committees, and go home with the troublesome question laid for two years. No vote need be taken, no individual responsibility assumed, and by the next election the short popular memory would be occupied with something else. It is a beautiful plan for statesmen who desire to avoid "making a record."

To sum up, the California Legislature is in as complete a state of paralysis, so far as useful measures are concerned, as the British Parliament. And while it is the fashion to cry against over-legislation, and to say that it would be good policy to pay law-makers to stay at home, our experience is that a growing community needs new laws, and sometimes needs them very badly.

S. E. MOFFETT.

KINGSBURG, FRESNO CO., CAL., April 14, 1885.

### STATUES AND MEDALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to present to you a few remarks in relation to the criticisms on Perrot's 'History of Art' and Lenormant's 'Monnaies et Médailles' that appeared in the *Nation* of April 23, 1885.

You are practically correct when you say, in the review of Perrot's book, that it is not possible for the stone steps with sculptured bas-reliefs to have been found inside the temple of Golgoi, as they are said by Cesnola to have been found ('Cyprus,' p. 159). But you are inaccurate in saying that they were found *prior* to the discovery of the temple. In comparing the two versions published by Mr. Di Cesnola about these sculptured objects you will find that, according to 'Cyprus,' p. 159, they were found in 1870 at a specially-indicated spot within the enclosure of the so-called temple, and are called then "foot-stools of stone"; while Mr. Di Cesnola's report, published in the journal of the Turin Academy (Atti, etc., vol. xi, pp. 493 et seq., Pl. iv.) positively says that these same objects were found *after* 1873 and *outside* the temple of Golgoi, in the necropolis, and this report calls them "funerary bas-reliefs."

In the same review you omitted to mention the important point that when Ceccaldi saw the statue of the "Priest holding a dove" in May, 1870, he found it "intact," while when Doell, a real archaeologist, admires it *three months later*, he finds it, as you say, without feet, base, and bird, and with the head and forearms separated from the statue; thus showing that Ceccaldi's eye had been deceived as to the real state of the statue.

As to the various measurements published by the Museum at different dates, relating to the height of this same statue, the public ought to be made aware that the climatic influences peculiar to the spot of mother earth where the Museum is built, may have great bearing on the accuracy of the rule used for measurement at the Museum. We know officially that the disintegration of the calcareous stone goes on more rapidly there than in other parts of the city or even of the world. Also, the geological formation on which the Museum is built is subject to great transformations. For instance, I read in the *Evening Post* of June 1, 1882, Di Cesnola's declaration (which I should not dare to question) that the foundations of the Museum are built "upon loose soil"; while in the *Evening Post* of the day after I read a letter of Mr. Cesnola's, written in December, 1872, in which he declares that the Museum is built on

rock. Therefore one ought to be lenient in judging of the accuracy of measurements.

The review is inaccurate in speaking of No. 107 as "a terracotta statuette, which is represented as a bearded Venus, and accepted by him (Perrot) as such . . ." The truth is, that the god-father of the little monster is Di Cesnola himself, for Perrot, like yourself, denies its bisexual pretensions.

I must respectfully enter a protest against the conclusions contained in the review of Lenormant's book, when you say, "There is no reason to believe that coins (antique coins) were struck hot." I believe that an examination of antique gold and silver coins of perfect preservation, and which still bear on their surface what is called "radiation," would prove conclusively that these coins were struck while they were very hot, and that the surfaces of the metal touched by the dies suddenly became colder by this contact than the inside of the ingot. I believe, also, that what you say of the "incused denarii," in support of this theory of yours, tends to prove the reverse of what you ingeniously propose, and that the impression produced on the second *flan* shows that it must have been of softer material (probably hot metal), while the *flan* just struck before had already had time to harden (probably by cooling).—Respectfully yours,

GASTON L. FEUJARENT.

NEW YORK, April 25, 1885.

### A YOUTHFUL JUDGE OF THE SUPREME COURT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article in No. 1034 on "The President and the Judiciary," mentioning the young men who have occasionally been elevated to the Supreme Bench, you have omitted one who, we believe, was the youngest ever appointed—Judge William Johnson, of South Carolina. Judge Johnson was Speaker of our House of Representatives before he was twenty-seven, and a judge on the State Bench at twenty-eight, and was appointed by Mr. Jefferson to the United States Supreme Court on the 6th of March, 1804, when only *thirty-two* years of age. Judge Johnson sat in the court for thirty years, dying August 16, 1834.

CHARLESTON.

April 25, 1885.

### THE STUDY OF ENGLISH AT THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his communication in the *Nation* on the "Study of English at the South," Prof. H. E. Shepherd says: "In the College of Charleston there is a specific chair of English, and the instruction is continuous during the four years of the collegiate course. This is a marked exception to the prevailing rule in Carolina colleges."

Lest the expression "marked exception" should give the impression that the course of English instruction in the Charleston College is so exceptional as to find no parallel in this State, I wish to say that at Wofford College, Spartanburg, S. C., there is also "a specific chair of English, and the instruction is continuous during the four years of the collegiate course."

F. C. WOODWARD.

WOFFORD COLLEGE, April 24, 1885.

### RAILROAD PASSES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 16 you mention the fact that the legislator of Connecticut finds in small pay (\$300) and in insufficient mileage a reason for accepting railroad passes. The legislator of Wisconsin, with \$500 pay and a large

mileage, still finds reason to accept railroad passes for himself and all his friends. The way in which passes are here used by officers of the State and distinguished citizens falls very little short of wholesale corruption. J.

WISCONSIN, April 24, 1885.

#### TO MAGAZINE EDITORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg leave to offer a suggestion on the printing of reviews and magazines, that, if carried out, would be of a very great service to their readers. The speedy accumulation of the current numbers soon forces one either to have them bound, thrown away, or sold. Many adopt the expedient of cutting out such articles as have interested them, binding these, and throwing the remainder away. It is for this constantly increasing class that I offer this suggestion to the publishers: Let us always have an important article commenced on the top of the right-hand page, and nowhere else. If an interval of empty space should thus be made necessary, let it be so; or devote such to poems or short notices. By having all the significant articles so arranged, it would be possible to cut them out to the prejudice of no other significant article, which is seldom the case at present, and at the same time to avoid introducing them by truncated and acephalous morsels put in that bad eminence solely by the pressure of necessity. The reader and subscriber has rights that even publishers are bound to respect.

Yours sincerely,

JOHN TUNIS.

QUINCY, ILL.

["But who shall decide what are the 'significant articles'?" the editor will probably ask. And if invidious distinctions are to be thus made by him, will it not speedily be asserted that authors' feelings have as much right to be considered as the scrap-book convenience of readers and subscribers?—ED. NATION.]

#### TEWRDANNCKH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your Notes of April 23, concerning the Holbein Society's reproduction of the old German poem 'Tewrdannckh,' I read the following:

"The wood-engravings illustrating the work were probably by Albert Dürer and his scholars, but only Hans Schaufelin can be fixed upon with certainty as one of the engravers."

I hardly understand what can be meant by "Dürer and his scholars"; but there is no doubt of the 'Tewrdannckh' designs being the work of Schaufelin, who certainly was not an engraver. The engravings are by Jost de Negher.

W. J. LINTON.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., April 27.

## Notes.

CASSELL & Co. publish early next month the 'Life and Reminiscences of Gustave Doré,' compiled by Blanche Roosevelt.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately a new volume by the Rev. R. Heber Newton, entitled 'Philistinism,' plain words concerning certain forms of unbelief, in twelve discourses.

Under the title of 'England and Russia in Asia' (Osgood) Mr. George M. Towle has compiled the initial volume of a vest-pocket series on "Timely Topics." He appears to have drawn his information from the nearest encyclopædias, and not always with care, as any of them would have saved him from the ridiculous blunder of con-

stantly speaking of Timour Tamerlane. It will also confuse the geographical student to be told that Askabad is situated on the Caspian, when all the maps show it to be at least 250 miles in a direct line from the nearest point of that sea. Again, we are told that Merv was taken by the Russians passing from Turkestan to the left bank of the Oxus, whereas, in fact, it was captured by an expedition from the side of Askabad, and was the last step of the trans-Caspian movement on the part of the Russians. Of this movement Mr. Towle makes no mention, although it has occupied six years, has included three important campaigns, and has brought about the present difficulty, to enlighten the public about which is the avowed object of the book. These are not all the errors in it, but they are enough to admonish publishers to secure timely writers as well as timely topics.

Harper & Bros. have added Charles Marvin's 'Russians at the Gates of Herat' to their Franklin Square Library.

The painful circumstances of the past few weeks have directed public attention anew to the career of General Grant. The publishers (D. Appleton & Co.) of General Badeau's 'Military History of Ulysses S. Grant' have accordingly brought out a new edition of that eminently readable and authoritative work in three volumes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have published the opening lecture of the year delivered before the Union Theological Seminary by Prof. Francis Brown. The subject, "Assyriology, its use and abuse in Old Testament study," is opportune, and has drawn from Professor Brown some interesting illustrations of his thesis. His warnings are directed principally to the students of the Old Testament who are not familiar with Assyrian. He cautions them against its use in apologetics, and admonishes them to distrust popular and cursory statements of surprising discoveries—a warning by no means unnecessary, since in this, as in many other departments of learning, the writer who is able to catch the public ear is not, as a rule, of the best informed or most accurate class. Of the use of Assyriology in filling out the background and giving the details of some of the meagre historical accounts in the Bible, Professor Brown furnishes Cyrus, and Ahab, and Benhadad as instances. A good bibliography accompanies the book.

For summer reading, Roberts Bros. have put into attractive paper covers some old favorites—E. E. Hale's 'Man without a Country,' Silvio Pellico's 'My Prisons,' Mistral's 'Mirèio,' Molloy's 'Our Autumn Holiday on French Rivers,' and Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Treasure Island.'

A pleasing portrait of Miss Murfree ("Charles Egbert Craddock") is given in Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s *Literary Bulletin* for May.

In the heat of the late Presidential canvass the citizens of Buffalo paused to take part in one of the most curious sentimental actions of the present age. The bones of Red Jacket and of eight other chiefs of the Six Nations were reinterred with ceremony in the Forest Lawn Cemetery, and a monument is to be erected above their graves. A granddaughter of Brant, chief of the Mohawks, was one of the many persons of mixed blood who attended the exercises. Less than twenty full-blood Senecas are thought to be now living. The Buffalo Historical Society has published a pamphlet account of the obsequies of October 9, 1884. It contains numerous illustrations.

The series of papers on the "Battles and Leaders of the Civil War" will probably always be regarded as the greatest distinction of vol. vii of the *Century*, now lying bound before us. Mr. Cable's "Freedman's Case in Equity," however, has, above any other single article, caused the

loudest echo and stimulated the most salutary reflection. Mr. Edward Eggleston's agreeable and valuable series on colonial life and manners furnishes another chapter to this volume. Professor Langley's papers on "The New Astronomy" also deserve to be signalized. Among the portraits, those of Doctor Holmes and of Webster occupy the first place in our regard. Mr. Vedder's Omar Khayyám illustrations mark the pictorial event of our American year.

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for 1884 possesses several features of general, not to say popular, interest. Professor Cook states that another year is likely to see completed the necessary geodetic points for the basis of the entire State map now in progress. The topographical survey has less than two-fifths of the State's area to finish, and that the most level and easy of accomplishment. A buried forest, sunk since the advent of white settlers—say within 280 years—and lately discovered in the clay-pits near South Amboy, is made the subject of discussion and illustration, as is also the fine columnar trap quarry on Orange Mountain, which has been likened to the Giant's Causeway. The Green-Pond Mountain rocks are discussed anew, and assigned to a higher horizon than hitherto. The multiplication of artesian wells along the south coast has developed a certain and abundant supply of pure water, and thrown fresh light on the tertiary and cretaceous formations in their relation to the ocean bottom. The iron and zinc-mining industries receive their usual attention.

Mr. Rider's bright and independent *Book Notes* begins a third volume with the issue of April 25. He has been criticised for his effective comments on the tariff, and replies that "there is not today, nor has there been in half a century, a public print in Providence in which a word could be inserted in criticism of the policy of protection." This period coincides with the political and journalistic predominance of the late Senator Anthony.

Messrs. Appleton Morgan, R. S. Guernsey, Albert E. Frey, Brander Matthews, A. Chalmers Hinton, and James E. Reynolds have been incorporated "The Shakespeare Society of New York."

France owes to the memory of Cobden the popularization of his biography, and Mr. John Morley's *Life* has furnished the opportunity. Guillaumin et Cie., Paris, send us a translation executed by Sophie Raffalovich, which in the main follows the abridged popular edition of Mr. Morley's work published by the Cobden Club in 1882. Passages, however, of special interest to the French public have been restored by the translator, and others too exclusively English suppressed, so that this volume has an individuality of its own, apart from the language in which it is written. The translator has furthermore prefixed a eulogistic sketch of Mr. Morley's literary career and political doctrine, using (as others have done before her) this author's estimate of other people, particularly of J. S. Mill, to illustrate his own temper and genius. Her fitness for her larger task is superficially shown by the absolute accuracy in the printing of English proper names, so far as we have been able to observe.

Here we may fitly mention a German tribute to Cobden and to Germany's need of his doctrines—'Richard Cobden's volkswirtschaftliche und politische Ansichten, auf Grund älterer und neuerer Quellen systematisch dargestellt von Dr. Karl Walcker' (Hamburg: F. H. Nestler & Melle). It is a small pamphlet of ninety-one pages octavo, containing in its appendix a useful bibliography. The mention, in its place, of Morley's 'Life' points out certain defects as they appear to Dr. Walcker. One is the use of expressions unfavorable to Prussia's wars of 1866 and 1870-71.



Mr. Christern sends us the illustrated catalogue of the Paris International Black-and-White Exhibition. Some of the reproductions manifest the steady improvement in these useful memoranda, which may one day become so cheap that a complete record of each exhibition can be afforded. The text is disgustingly fulsome. "On doit saluer M. E. Beaumetz comme un jeune maître" (p. 63). "Maitres merveilleux de la Renaissance italienne, . . . dites-moi si vous n'avez pas un admirable successeur dans M. Boulanger" (p. 64). "Monsieur Hennequin, votre délicieuse fusain me laisse une impression charmante, et je vous remercie du plaisir qu'il m'a procuré."

In the April number of *Le Moliériste*, the first of the sixth year of that admirable monthly, the editor, M. Georges Monval, publishes documents, recently discovered in the archives of the Comédie-Française, which show the chain of circumstances by which the precious Register of Lagrange, the most valuable of all the documents concerning Molière, came into the possession of the Comédie-Française.

The French critic, M. Gustave Masson, in an appreciative notice of Mr. Parkman's 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' in the April number of the *Revue des Questions Historiques*, takes his countrymen to task for neglecting the works of a writer with whom few "contemporary English historians can be compared for learning, perseverance, and literary ability." He even goes so far as to say, overlooking certain traitorous translations, that "the literature of the United States is so little known among us, that probably nobody in France has ever heard of Mr. Parkman." Though many French writers, he continues, have told the story of the strife of England and France for the possession of Canada, none have done it so fully or with such perfect knowledge of the facts as the American historian.

This year being the 200th anniversary of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, interest has naturally been awakened in this remarkable episode in French history. In France itself the interest has been shown by the recent appearance of several works treating of different phases of the subject, as 'Les Huguenots dans le Béarn et la Navarre,' M. de la Garde's 'Le Duc de Rohan et les protestants sous Louis XIII.,' and M. Bourchenin's 'Étude sur les académies protestantes.' In England it is proposed to form a Huguenot society whose object shall be, "to form a bond of fellowship among those who inherit or admire the characteristic Huguenot virtues—namely, the holding of a pure faith with true courage, and the habitual aim at a high standard in every work undertaken." A more practical aim will be the collection and publication of historical and genealogical material relating to the Huguenots who settled in Great Britain. We already have a *pur sang* New York Huguenot Society.

A new feature of *La Nouvelle Revue*, beginning with the number for April 15, will be a series of articles on contemporaneous literature by the well-known dramatic critic, M. Francisque Sarcey.

French antiquaries are protesting against the destruction of inscriptions and monuments in the African colonies. The ruins of Seriana, about eight miles from Constantine, have been used as a quarry, and many inscriptions not yet copied have disappeared. North African history and ethnology are yet so extremely incomplete that this is very regrettable. Let the inscriptions once be authentically in print, and historical science might give up the stones for building purposes, though she would do it grudgingly.

When Dumas borrowed from biological science his famous comparison of the vibrio, all Paris was in a tremor. Sig. Papa has found an even more disagreeable comparison, which he has

used in a sort of triangular duel that came about in this wise. Sig. Bartoli is writing a many-volume history of Italian literature. In the fifth volume, which treats of Dante, he forgot to mention Sig. Imbriani as a distinguished Dante scholar. Imbriani's disciple, Sig. Amalfi, attacked Bartoli fiercely, and Papa in turn attacks Amalfi, calls him a literary Rabagas, and declares that "Amalfi would afford Dr. Koch a fine case of infection by the comma bacillus." It is a pity that the revival of learning in Italy has led, exactly as it did in the sixteenth century in Germany and Holland, to these literary ferocities, that give the lie to Colonel Newcome's favorite quotation from Horace.

More detailed accounts of Mr. Im Thurn's ascent of Mt. Roraima describe the summit as a plateau covered with piles of rocks of most extraordinary shapes, between which "were a few stretches of low vegetation entirely filled with plants of a character distinct from those seen elsewhere in Guiana." Many, indeed, "are of species hitherto unknown." "The only animal life on the top was a few small butterflies of a common type." It should be remembered, however, that Mr. Im Thurn remained but a few hours on the summit, making no extended exploration.

—In a recent issue of the *Boston Watchman*, it was asked who wrote certain lines beginning "With noiseless tread Death comes on man." The Rev. Dr. S. F. Smith volunteered the answer that the author was Charles Follen, of Harvard University, who perished at the burning of the steamer *Lexington*, in 1840. Follen, indeed, quoted the lines in a New York lecture, on the last day of his life, but he took them from Schiller. As the chant of the Brothers of Mercy, in "William Tell" (Act iv, scene 3), they are familiar to every tyro in German. They are usually quoted as translated by Carlyle in his 'Life of Schiller,' in 1825. As if to raise his blunder to a second or still higher power, Doctor Smith adds that "the words are a translation from an Ode of Horace." The truth is, that both the words and sentiment are as far removed from everything Horatian as was the hymnology of the mediaeval Catholic Church.

—The similarity of the French character to the American in certain points has been often spoken of; a leading trait of likeness is the frequent practice of making liberal bequests and gifts for objects of public instruction. The numerous prizes dispensed by the French Institute, which are all the product of private bequests, the numerous *fonds*, both of books and of engravings, which have come into the Bibliothèque Nationale in the same way, as have also many paintings to the Louvre—are indications of a generous public spirit of which examples are not wanting, indeed, in England, but are, we think, less frequent, especially of late. Mr. Jones, to be sure, gave his £300,000 worth of pictures and furniture to South Kensington, and there have been other gifts of note, such as Lady Schreiber's china; but, on the other hand, the Duke of Marlborough's "Raphael," bought, one might almost say, with public funds, is sold to the nation for £70,000, and his library is dispersed to the ends of the earth. Part of the Earl of Ashburnham's MSS. cost the British Museum dear; the rest went to countries which have more liberal treasures. It is the people who have their reputations to make who give; those whose names are already illustrious sell. There are some reasons in the condition of France for greater generosity toward public institutions of art and literature. The French law divides inheritance equally among the heirs. Collections are sure to be sent to auction on the death of the man who has spent his life in getting them together; even if they are divided among the

heirs they have no longer size or unity, and generally the heirs prefer bank bills to canvases, books, and bibelots. The Rothschild library is one illustrious exception. Now no bibliophile or curio-maniac likes to think of the dispersion of the treasures that have cost him so much time, pains, and money to assemble; and if he is not obliged to provide sustenance for his children by selling them, he is tempted to seek glory for himself by giving them away. There is a fleeting fame, it may be, in a great sale, but in France there is glory with a promise of immortality in presenting one's art treasures to the Louvre and having them accepted. The body of *conservateurs* of that Museum are of universally recognized competency, and they do not accord a place on their walls or in their cabinets to the first comer. To have one's collections exhibited at the Louvre is like receiving the cross of the Legion of Honor; in some cases it is as good as being elected to the Academy. No wonder that every year there is a long list of donations, some of them, like the His de la Salle or the Coutan collection, of considerable extent and value.

—M. de Liesville, who died last February, is the latest example of a patriotic collector. He was less than fifty years old, but he had got together a most remarkable museum of arms, furniture, utensils, books, and engravings illustrating the Revolutionary period, which it is said it would be impossible to duplicate at any price. Inheriting an easy fortune, he came to Paris immediately after his graduation at the College of Pont-Levoy, and at once began the hunting of curios, which he kept up for more than twenty years in Paris and throughout the provinces. When he was satisfied that his collection was reasonably complete, he offered it to the state as a gift; but, after some negotiations, it was decided that the city of Paris should become its possessor and provide quarters for it in the Hôtel Carnavalet, where he became officially its *conservateur* and actually its augmenter. He was a very large man, of very mild manners, and his friends called him "the Gentle Giant." His writings, which were chiefly pamphlets, treated not only of art and archaeology, but of agriculture and natural history. They are not what will keep his name alive, as he doubtless knew.

—A new rival of the *Rundschau* has made its appearance in Germany in the shape of a monthly review called *Berliner Monatshefte für Literatur, Kritik und Theater*, which is, however, published at Minden, Westphalia (New York: Westermann). The editor is Heinrich Hart, who, with reference to Hieronymus Lörn's statement that "Germany has no literary public," expresses his determination to create such a public. The place of honor in the first number is, of course, assigned to the obligato novelette, as usual in German magazines. No fewer than twelve pages are devoted to verse, including a Heinesque poem, "Die Begegnung," by Hamerling, characterized by an almost pictorial vividness of suggestion. The editor announces in the prospectus that much attention is to be given to the theatre, and there are accordingly special dramatic reports from the leading German cities, besides an article by the former intendant of the Stuttgart Royal Theatre, deploring the great deference still paid in Germany to Parisian plays when the country has an abundance of modern dramatists of her own, including Paul Heyse, Bauernfeld, Wilbrandt, Lindner, Paul Lindau, Wichert, Moser, Schönthan, L'Arronge, Anzengruber, Wildenbruch, etc. Eduard von Hartmann contributes an article on the attempts to equalize the sexes, with which he does not sympathize, as he considers the realization of such aims both undesirable and impossible. On account of the great influence which women exert over men by their

natural charms and passive coyness, he thinks it is absolutely necessary that men should enjoy certain prerogatives over women; otherwise a period of pure feminine rule would be inaugurated such as not history but only legend has heretofore known: "Instead of one vote, every woman would have two, unless the husband were willing to sacrifice domestic peace to his political convictions." "In all Catholic countries the victory of the clerical party would be assured permanently, ending in the gradual triumph of Jesuitic Popery over the whole globe." Hartmann even seems to doubt the advisability of employing women as teachers, owing to their lack of physical endurance, the lower wages paid them being neutralized by the necessity of pensioning them sooner. In this, even if his facts are correct, he leaves out of account the influence which habit, aided by hereditary transmission, may accomplish in strengthening the feminine nerves and brain. In an anonymous article Bismarck is soundly berated for his want of interest in German literature. The writer thinks this indifference is neatly illustrated in a letter Bismarck once wrote to his wife, bidding her send him a novel to read, without specifying the author or even the kind of novel. The humorous department seems to appeal most to his sympathies, and even here, we are told, Bismarck's taste does not rise above the *Kladderadatsch Kalender* and the *Fliegende Blätter*. The writer indignantly asks why it is that the Government spends 200,000 marks on an alleged Rubens, one and a-half millions on some old miniatures and drawings, several millions on excavations at Olympia and Tiryns, but not a mark on contemporary literature. The author should have waited another month before writing his article, for an item is at present going the rounds of the press which shows to what atrocious extremes this Governmental indifference to contemporary genius goes. A poet sent a long poem to a newspaper, but owing to some mishap the package was lost. The poet demanded indemnity at the rate per column he would have been paid by the newspaper he wrote for; but the Post-office Department insisted on paying for the lost manuscript by the kilogramme!

—For the fifth time M. Jules Claretie has gathered into an annual volume the chief of his weekly *chroniques* in the *Temps*, 'La Vie à Paris—1884' (Paris: Victor-Havard; New York: F. W. Christern). It is not inferior to its predecessors. It abounds in amusing anecdotes, like the saying of the young music-maniac who regretted that he had never heard Alboni: "But fortunately Rossini has just died, and she has promised to sing at his funeral" (p. 457). Those who remember the absurd offer of the *World Employment Bureau* to provide amusing guests for dull entertainments, and who recall the clever story suggested by it, "Passages from the Diary of a Social Wreck," contributed to *Harper's Magazine* and reprinted in Scribner's 'Stories by American Authors,' will be pleased to see that the same scheme has been suggested in Paris, and that M. Claretie foresees the same social complications which the author of the story set before us most humorously. He also solves an enigma which has puzzled many readers on this side of the Atlantic, by declaring authoritatively that the proper pronunciation of his name is Claretie and not Clarsy. To still another American idea we owe some further personal revelations by M. Claretie in the March number of *Le Livre*. He takes as his pretext for describing his library and his books ("Confidences à propos de ma bibliothèque") the circular addressed to him by an American physician, asking how long he worked daily, whether early or late, whether smoking or not, and using stimulants or not, etc. If our memory serves, a book was the result of these

inquiries. So M. Claretie tells us how his copy for the *Temps* is written on green paper, of letter-sheet size, whereas his tales and dramas demand quarto sheets—green for the former, white for the latter. He has three *cabinets de travail* for his different kinds of literary composition. He generally works three hours a day, seldom four, and on rising in the morning—never at night. This takes no account of reading. M. Claretie's amiable if not very forcible countenance is among the illustrations which accompany this article.

—In the same number of *Le Livre* we find some interesting details, borrowed from the *Journal de Genève* of February 13, concerning Rousseau's sojourn in Venice (1743-44). He was then secretary of the French ambassador, M. de Montaigu, to whom he supplied literary style if not ideas. The Swiss Consul at Venice has lately had the curiosity to trace this connection from the archives, and has discovered the palace where Rousseau lodged, now occupied as a storehouse by Messrs. Juliani, master builders in wood. The young secretary reached Venice at the end of August, 1743, and left the city on August 22, 1744. A single autograph signature remains, attached to a passport for provisions intended for the Ambassador's household; but, among a crowd of documents written in his own hand, the whole of the memorandum to the Senate concerning a sailors' riot ("affaire Olivet"), as reported in the 'Confessions,' remains to justify Rousseau's truthfulness in this particular. In other respects the part he played in the embassy is thought to have been magnified, and the story of *Véronèse* and his two daughters the *danseuses* is pronounced apocryphal so far as Rousseau is concerned in it. Curiously enough, however, a parallel case with other names is found in the records. This seems to the investigator proof of falsification, but we are all familiar with freaks of memory that lead us to identify ourselves with past occurrences with which we were familiar if only by hearsay.

—That what is now the ambitious dream of Russian commanders—a descent upon India, in order to break the main prop, as they deem, of perfidious Albion's power—was also a scheme of Bonaparte's in the prime of his military career, is well known. It is, however, surprising to find how long he cherished the idea of rivaling the greatest adventure of Alexander the Great. A recently published letter to his librarian, M. Barbier, dictated by Napoleon at Bayonne, in July, 1808, and containing instructions for the composition of a travelling library, makes this occupation of his mind, amid enterprises in quarters most remote from the shores of the Indus, almost indubitably clear. The library was to include translations of the Bible, the best works of the Fathers, the Koran, mythology, ecclesiastical history; Homer, Lucan, Tasso, 'Télémaque,' the 'Henriade,' Corneille, Racine, and other poetry; select works of Voltaire, Rousseau, Fielding, Richardson, Le Sage, and other novelists; the principal writings of Machiavelli and Montesquieu, and a considerable number of special historical memoirs. The letter then goes on to say (we quote from an English translation): "The Emperor would also wish M. Barbier to prepare, in conjunction with one of the most eminent geographers of the day, a memoir upon all the campaigns which took place upon the Euphrates and against the Parthians, beginning with that of Crassus, down to the eighth century, including those of Antony, Trajan, Julian, etc., tracing upon maps of a suitable scale the route taken by each army, with the ancient and modern names of the countries and principal towns, geographical remarks about the territory, and an historical narrative of each expedition, taken from the

original writers." The meditated campaign was thus to begin from a base conceded by Turkey, and proceed, like Alexander's onward march, through the northern provinces of Persia.

—The site of Gortyna, one of the most important cities of Crete in ancient days, has been long known and frequently visited. In 1857 M. Thénon found there a stone built into the walls of a mill, and succeeded in purchasing it for the Louvre. It was inscribed with archaic letters running alternately from right to left and left to right, as the ploughman goes, exhibiting the intermediate stage between the original Phœnician mode of writing and the later Greek. It contained some regulations touching the rights and property of adopted children. A larger fragment was found by Haussoullier in 1879, in the walls of a house near by, where it still remains. This was concerned with the disposal of the hand of a maiden heiress on the decease of the father. Both fragments came from the bed of a sluice that flowed from the mill. In July last the place was visited by Doctor Halbherr in the interests of the German Archaeological Institute of Athens, who, on being informed that other inscriptions lay in the bed of the sluice, where it had been carried through and over an ancient wall, had the water turned off for two days, dug out the inscribed side of the wall, and copied four columns which were evidently the continuation and completion of the fragments known before. The inscribed wall extended still further to the right, but into a field whose owner would not give him permission to dig. Returning to Candia, he communicated his discovery to Dr. Ernst Fabricius, his collaborator, whose report last year upon the tunnel of Polycrates in Samos has made him well known to archaeologists. He repaired to the spot and succeeded in prevailing upon the owner to allow a trench to be run as far as the inscription extended. It was found that it had been engraved on the inside of a heavy wall of grayish limestone, formed of squared blocks accurately fitted in archaic fashion without cement. The wall had been that of an apparently circular structure, connected with other substructions without. Eight columns of inscription, in addition to the four copied by Halbherr, came to light, in so remarkable a state of preservation that but a few of the letters, here and there, are missing. Each column consists of 53, 54, or 55 lines, covering four layers of stone in height (about five feet), and engraved without regard to the joints of the stone. The tops of the ninth, tenth, and twelfth columns are missing, but the inscription is otherwise complete, both the beginning and end being certainly found. As the letters in the first line of each column begin at the right and run toward the left, so the tablets read from the right in succession to the left. This is the inscription whose discovery was announced in No. 1019 of the *Nation*, where it was said to contain no less than 17,000 letters—which is not far from the fact. For length alone it is conspicuous among the memorials of antiquity, and in this particular among archaic Greek inscriptions there is nothing to compare with it.

—It probably belongs to the sixth century B. C., and the twelve tables may be compared with the famous twelve at Rome, except that the Cretan are wholly concerned with matters of private law—how cases are to be conducted; when and what fines are to be paid; regulations in case of divorce; what property the wife may take with her; marriage of a widow, and the status of her children and their property; disposition of her property if she die childless; action in relation to exposing a child; reciprocal rights of parents and children in the matter of property, sons receiving twice as much as daughters; mi-



nute directions as to the laws of succession to property, and most elaborate regulations for heiresses and their disposal in marriage, so that the estate shall remain in the family, as at Sparta. With the provisions relating to free persons are usually coupled something similar for slaves, of which there appear to be two classes—one householders, the other house-slaves—for whom the fines are usually smaller than those for free-men, but sometimes greater, according to the nature of the crime. Much has been written in ancient and modern days about the laws of Crete, from which those of the Peloponnesian Dorians have been supposed to originate, but nothing has come down to us so minute and specific, and so comprehensive, as this inscription. Its value to the historian and the student of ancient law is very great, while it leads the philologist into a field of clover such as he has not had in many a day. The language is of the harshest Cretan Doric, where, if euphony is laziness, laziness was not a habit. Words strange to our lexicons, and forms unseen in our grammars, are thickly strewn. Fortunately, the most of them become intelligible by derivation or analogy, and the completeness and length of the inscription tend to elucidate the remainder. In order to place it as soon as possible before scholars for their study, it has been published in the *Mittheilungen des deutschen archäologischen Institutes*, ix, fourth part, without comment. Comment, however, it needs, and it will be a fruitful source of monographs from various quarters.

#### PASTEUR.

*Louis Pasteur. His Life and Labors.* By his Son-in-law. Translated from the French by Lady Claud Hamilton. D. Appleton & Co. 1885.

THIS volume, in the original French, has for subtitle, "*Histoire d'un Savant par un Ignorant*," but it is not written for ignorant people. It presupposes, if not a knowledge of the interesting discoveries which it details, some familiarity with kindred subjects; and those who would seek simple entertainment will scarcely find it in these pages. But they are only technical, not abstruse; and through the barriers which these technicalities impose on the unscientific reader, glimpses may be obtained of wide regions important in their character—for it can scarcely be questioned that it is of importance to all of us to know the principal physical facts of our world. And however little we are adepts in science, it is almost impossible in reading such a book not to share in some degree the emotion with which one of Pasteur's scientific predecessors—an old man—exclaimed, on seeing the completely successful result of one of Pasteur's first entirely original experiments and discoveries: "My dear boy, I have loved science so well all my life that this makes my heart beat."

We are far removed from the days, fifty years ago, of which Mr. Mark Pattison writes in his 'Memoirs,' when "the great discoveries of the last half century in chemistry, physiology, etc., were not even known by report to any of us." The vast domain of physical science is now overrun by every newspaper and magazine, "journal," and "record" in the land, and we are in some danger of that mental disease spoken of by Kant (in a passage quoted by Mr. Pattison) which "arises from the growth in the nation of a class which has not thorough science, and yet is not totally ignorant; which has caught up notions on [out of?] current literature, which make it think itself on the same level of knowledge with those who have laboriously studied the sciences." But this self-delusion does not necessarily follow the attempt to apprehend—even if one cannot appreciate—the large final results reached by

those who "laboriously study the sciences"; and it is not an idle interest one may take in the volume before us, since M. Pasteur ranks very high among those who in our day have thrown such a light on a great number of physical facts as converts them from isolated phenomena into illustrations of law.

While his researches have been in wholly different directions from Mr. Darwin's, they are by no means wholly dissimilar in quality to those of his great confrère, and the chapter in this volume on Fermentations curiously reminds one of Mr. Darwin's volume on Earthworms, if only in proving the enormous part played by agencies of which we habitually take little note. One of these chapters shows us the steps by which Pasteur reached his great and now well-known discovery—a discovery of the most amazing expansiveness—that fermentations are due to the presence and action of microscopic organized living beings. Different fermentations are produced by different kinds of organisms. One of the fermentations (that of butyric acid) exhibits an entirely undreamed of peculiarity, in the extraordinary fact that the vibrios which produce it live and multiply without air. So that, as the famous chemist M. Dumas said one day to M. Pasteur, before the Academy of Sciences: "In these infinitely small organisms (*petits de la vie*) you have discovered a third kingdom—the kingdom to which those beings belong which, with all the prerogatives of animal life, do not require air for their existence, and find the heat necessary for them in the chemical decompositions which they set up around them."

Another of these little organisms, that which produces acetic fermentation, has such prodigious activity of life and multiplication that M. Pasteur gave expression in this manner to its powers—at the Academy of Sciences again: "I would undertake in a period of twenty-four hours to cover over with mycoderma aceti a surface of vinous liquid as extensive as the hall in which we are here assembled. I should only have to sow it the day before in almost invisibly small spots with newly-formed mycoderma aceti." We will here observe, in passing, that the English translation renders this last sentence inaccurately: "sow in it . . . almost invisible particles of," etc.; it is the smallness and variety of the spots ("petites places à peine visibles") which makes the wonder.

Of the magnitude of the operations of fermentation we are scarcely conscious except when we definitely bring to our minds that it is the cause of "the disappearance of the dead body and of the fallen plant, of the foaming of the must in the vintage cask, of the rising of dough, of the curdling of milk, of the putrefaction of blood, of the transformation of the heap of straw into manure, of the creation of soil out of dead leaves and plants."

The investigation of the cause of fermentations leads directly to the question of spontaneous generation. "M. L'Ignorant's" entertaining, superficial account of the history of this theory we must pass over. Suffice it to say, that down to 1858 learned believers in this theory and able defenders of it were not lacking; and when in that year M. Pasteur proposed to enter on the study of the problem, his principal scientific friends vainly endeavored to dissuade him from so foolish a task. But in 1860 the Academy of Sciences offered a prize for careful experiments which would throw new light on the question, and this prize Pasteur won by experiments already completed which drew from the permanent Secretary of the Academy of Sciences, M. Flourens, this assertion: "The experiments are decisive. . . . Those who still doubt have failed to grasp the question."

We must hasten on without entertaining our

readers with the interesting accounts of the objects of M. Pasteur's travels, and the purposes of his feasts, his drinking-bouts, and the reports of his various triumphs before native and foreign "Commissions," and in International Congresses. His investigations differ from Darwin's in the immediately practical nature of many of them. He has frequently—notably in his studies of the "maladies" of wine and of silk-worms, and of the virulent diseases of horses, cows, and sheep—turned his attention to these points from other motives than those of strictly personal scientific interest; and the sacrifice of life which he made by such overlabors as brought on a paralysis in 1868, must have been amply rewarded by the widespread recognition of his patriotic services. The permanent results of these services—the fact, indeed, whether they are "services," is still under discussion among men of science. While some of them believe that he has conferred incalculable public benefits by placing large industries and departments of agriculture on the secure basis of scientific knowledge, others maintain that his processes open one door to dangers in shutting another, and would listen without enthusiasm to Huxley's assertion that "Pasteur's discoveries would suffice of themselves to cover the war indemnity of five milliards of francs paid to Germany by France." And there is equal difference of judgment with regard to his discoveries concerning human diseases, fevers—those of a contagious nature—cholera, hydrophobia, and other. It is maintained by many that it is by no means impossible that he has taken the first steps toward their complete extinction. But perhaps no stronger assertion is safe than that made by Tyndall in 1876, when he wrote to him, "For the first time in the history of science we are able to entertain the sure and certain hope that in relation to epidemic diseases, medicine will soon be delivered from empiricism and placed upon a real scientific basis. When this great day shall come, humanity will recognize that it is to you the greatest part of its gratitude is due."

Pasteur's experiments show not only that the cause of virulent diseases, as of fermentations, is a microscopic parasite, but that this living organism can be "cultivated" in the laboratory of the physicist, and can be used, under certain conditions brought about at the will of the cultivator, as a (more or less) complete protection from the malady which under other conditions it creates. The question raised on the part of the adversaries of Pasteur is not only whether the subsequent immunity from danger is complete, but whether it is not purchased by the loss of vital strength. Pasteur's discovery of these new "vaccinations" (as he has called them in honor of Jenner) amounts to this: if cowpox were to vanish from the world, our present preventive against smallpox would be lost; but under the great law Pasteur has revealed, disease henceforth may be fought with weapons from its own arsenal. It is to be regretted that the author of this volume has not dwelt more effectively on the necessity of using vivisection in obtaining this all-important knowledge. It is a curious indication of the interlocking of one investigation with another, that it was at the close of his 'Studies on Beer' that M. Pasteur wrote: "The etiology of contagious diseases is perhaps on the eve of having unexpected light thrown upon it"—words which are a striking confirmation of the judgment reached two hundred years earlier by the genius of Robert Boyle: "These phenomena [divers phenomena of diseases, as well fevers as others] will perhaps be never well understood without a thorough knowledge of the theory of fermentations."

We have already referred to Mr. Darwin's studies of earthworms. In Pasteur's investigations

concerning the etiology of the disease known as *charbon*, he, too, was brought face to face with these obscure workers, and he saw their work from a less welcome point of view than that of the great naturalist, discovering a part of it which Mr. Darwin seems to have overlooked. Pasteur became convinced that some portion of the spread of contagious diseases is due to the earthworm bringing to the surface the germs contained in buried bodies, which, in the form of dust on leaves and herbage, carries contagion to browsing animals. And, in this connection, M. Pasteur lately pointed out in the Academy of Medicine the possible malign influence of the soil on human maladies, and the possible danger from cemeteries. Is the earthworm to be our final and convincing argument for cremation?

It may be wished that this volume had not appeared during the life-time of M. Pasteur, and with his evident coöperation. But such a wish is too alien to the literary habits of our day for any vehement expression of it to be indulged in. French sentiment, even what may be called French folly, plays a certain part, but an insignificant one, in these pages; and those who are in the habit of reading the last page first, if they be fastidious, will receive an undue impression of tastelessness from the melodramatic scene-painting there. But fortunately the book, as a whole, is much more a sketch of the man's work than of the man himself; and the work is great work. The translation is fairly easy and agreeable (as good in style as the original deserves), and Mr. Tyndall's imprimatur should be sufficient assurance of its scientific accuracy.

#### CLARK'S SIGN LANGUAGE.

*The Indian Sign Language*, with brief explanatory notes of the gestures taught deaf-mutes in our institutions for their instruction, and a description of some of the peculiar laws, customs, myths, superstitions, ways of living, code of peace and war signals of our aborigines. By W. P. Clark, U. S. A. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 443.

THE most noticeable point in Captain Clark's volume is that he makes no mention of the large amount of literature that has gathered around the subject of sign language in general, and more particularly that he acknowledges none of the work accomplished during the present century upon the sign language of the North American Indians. The most recent of that work, which comprehends and republishes all of the earlier, has been done by the Bureau of Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution, and is the special production of Colonel Garrick Mallery, assisted by many collaborators. In 1880 Colonel Mallery published an 'Introduction to the Study of Indian Languages,' which was followed in the same year by a 'Collection of Gesture Signs and Signals of the North American Indians, with some Comparisons,' 329 pages quarto. This volume contained more than two thousand signs in alphabetic order, representing several hundred different ideas, the material being furnished by about forty special correspondents. A third paper by the same author, of 290 pages royal octavo, with 286 illustrations, entitled "Sign Language among the North American Indians Compared with that among Other Peoples and Deaf Mutes," appeared in the First Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, issued in 1881. These works have been widely discussed with reference to their value in connection with theories of the origin of oral language, and, by another line of evolution, with ideographs, pictographs, and consequently with written language.

That Captain Clark has made no allusion to these publications, especially to the second or 'Collection,' is the more remarkable from the

fact that the arrangement of his work, including minute details, is apparently copied from it. But no charge of plagiarism in the description of the individual signs rests upon him, as his mode of considering sign language—indeed, his fundamental conception of it—differs radically from that presented by the Bureau of Ethnology. He has substantially taken the ground that there was but one sign language among the North American Indians, and, furthermore, that there was, as a rule, but one sign, or combination of signs, to represent one object or conception. On the other hand, Colonel Mallery, in his several publications, has stated and shown by many examples that while there is one system of gesture speech among Indians, it is not to be regarded as one formal or absolute language; several groups, with their centres of origin, being indicated for signs that had become conventional, and indefinite variety and flexibility being postulated for true ideographic or self-interpreting signs.

The same difference of view between the two writers prevails with regard to the gesture signs of deaf-mutes, which are introduced by both of them in connection with the Indian signs. Captain Clark simply gives one deaf-mute sign: Colonel Mallery recognizes the fact that many of the particular signs of deaf-mutes in America not only differ from those used with the same signification in some countries of Europe, but also differ among the several institutions for deaf-mute instruction in the United States; and also that there is an entirely distinct class of signs, which may be called "natural deaf-mute signs," produced by the separate invention of mutes before instruction. These several classes of signs, and not one indefinite example, which might belong to any one of them, are given by him in comparison.

The third difference in the mode of treatment of the subject is, that the Bureau of Ethnology has presented copious comparisons of the gesture signs of antiquity, so far as preserved in literature and art, and of their modern use and signification in many remote parts of the world, including Italy, Turkey, Sicily, the Hawaiian, Fiji, and Gilbert Islands, Madagascar, Japan, and Australia. The gesture signs of all speaking men, and of deaf-mutes, are in this manner regarded as one system possessing great interest and importance; but by no means can any collection of them, whether comprehensive or limited, be usefully treated as a separate language. When the diverse signs are purely ideographic, they have been found to be intelligible to persons familiar with the principles of sign expression; but when, as is very common, they have become conventional, they cannot be understood without the aid of the context or without knowledge of the particular convention. The instances of diversity among Indian signs are so numerous that a vocabulary would be insufficient and misleading that should be confined to the presentation of a single sign for each of the several objects or ideas to be expressed, without adding variants giving the designations of the several groups using them. There being no single absolute language, each of the several forms of expression has an equal right to consideration, without which a vocabulary must either be limited to a single dialect or become a glossary of a jargon.

The present work is liable to this charge. There is no means of ascertaining whether the greater part of the signs printed are those of any distinct body or bodies of Indians, or indeed whether they have not all or most of them been subjected to Captain Clark's catalytic discretion. He frankly declared, in the number of the *United Service* for July, 1880, that the description of signs should be made according to a mean or average, which average of course is made by

himself; and there is internal evidence that this course has been pursued in the volume. The signs, as described, have become his own signs, not the genuine signs of any Indians. According to the principles of sign-formation, he could and undoubtedly did use his signs to advantage, for he became distinguished as an expert sign-talker. But with this practical skill he has been unable to explain the principles of the system, just as many a fluent talker of English is unable to spell or parse, far less qualified to write a grammar and dictionary. His vocabulary, therefore, will not contribute to science until it has been analyzed by scholars experienced in this branch of study. Nor will it be of much value to travellers or other persons desirous to learn sign language for their personal use. Mere memorizing of his signs will not suffice when there are so many variants both in conception and execution which are left unmentioned. It is also doubtful if many students can memorize the signs as described, especially without the aid of illustrations.

Captain Clark gives in all honesty the signs which he has met, understood, and approved during an experience of six years. His work, as compared with that of the Bureau of Ethnology, illustrates the difference between the individual work of any one man, unprepared by special education for its undertaking, and the combined labor of many observers and students trained in the same methods, and directed to a common object. In all of the publications of the Bureau of Ethnology mentioned, in immediate connection with the description of a sign appears the tribe or tribes in which it is noticed, and the authority therefor, whether collaborator or published work. Many of the collaborators have been directly engaged in the work for a longer time than claimed by Captain Clark for himself, and some of them have contributed the observations of a lifetime, made in regions in which Captain Clark had, according to his own account, spent but a few weeks or days, or which he had never visited.

Although in his vocabulary Captain Clark does not often recognize the diversities in Indian signs, which, as above explained, constitute a fundamental and interesting part of the system, he inconsistently acknowledges in his Introduction that some tribes have "had determined centres, if not of origin, certainly of perfection and propagation of gesture speech," and divides them into five groups as follows: I. Cheyenne, Arapaho. II. Mandan, Gros Ventre, Arikara. III. Crows. IV. Blackfeet. V. Kiowa, Apache. These divisions, according to the views held at the Bureau of Ethnology, are not true groups, but the tribes mentioned are arranged into two. The first embraces the Arikara, Dakota, Mandan, Gros Ventre or Hidatsa, Blackfeet, Crows, and other tribes in Montana and Idaho. The second consists of the Arapaho, Cheyenne, Pani, Kiowa, Caddo, Wichita, Apache of Indian Territory, and other tribes in the southwest as far as New Mexico, and possibly portions of Arizona. The other tribes not mentioned by Captain Clark are to be grouped as follows: Third, Pima, Yuma, Papago, Maricapa, Hualpai (Yuman), and the tribes of southern California. Fourth, Shoshoni, Banak, Pal-Uta of Pyramid Lake, and the tribes of northern Idaho and lower British Columbia, eastern Washington and Oregon. Fifth, Alaska: embracing the southern Inuit, Kenai (Athabaskan), and the Iakutat and Tshilkaat tribes of the Thlinkit or Koloshan stock. The gestures of Alaskan tribes present a marked difference from those of any of the southern tribes. Gestures are still understood by the Indians of British Columbia and northern parts of Vancouver's Island, where they prevailed extensively at one time. This region is



somewhat beyond the area in which the Chinook jargon is spoken, and in which it supplants the use of signs as a necessity for communication.

The parts of the volume which will be most interesting to the general reader are the accounts of laws, customs, myths, and superstitions, injected into various parts of it in connection with the signs mentioned. Few of these are new, and some of them are contradicted by writers and explorers in the field who have had more experience than the author. They will not now be criticised. The only one of them which it seems important to note is in direct connection with the sign language, where the author declares, under the head of "Woman," that even among the tribes that are thoroughly conversant with gesture speech, the women only possess a limited knowledge of it. This is distinctly denied by many observers, and a particularly interesting account was communicated by Disappearing Mist (a leading chief of the Iroquois now remaining in Canada), to the effect that in his younger days the women used the sign language among one another in the presence of the warriors of the tribe, in order not to disturb them by the noise of spoken words.

It is proper to end this notice with an expression of sorrow for the untimely death of Captain Clark, which suddenly occurred as his manuscript had been placed in the hands of the publisher. He was an accomplished, amiable, and industrious young officer, whose interest in contributing to the literature concerning the North American Indians was most commendable. The reasons for the imperfections of his work have been sufficiently indicated.

#### BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

*Macready as I Knew Him.* By Lady Pollock. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 8vo, pp. 141.

*Henry Irving.* By William Winter. George J. Coombes. 8vo, pp. 123.

*William E. Burton, Actor, Author, and Manager.* A Sketch of his Career, with Recollections of his Performances. By William L. Keese. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 230.

*An Actor's Tour, or Seventy Thousand Miles with Shakespeare.* By Daniel E. Bandmann. Edited by Bernard Gisby. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 12mo, pp. 305.

*L'Art de la Mise-en-Scène. Essai d'esthétique théâtrale.* Par Becq de Fouquières. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo, pp. xi, 285.

THE little book about Macready, in which Lady Pollock has gracefully recorded her recollections of him, is an admirable supplement to Macready's journals which Sir Frederick Pollock presented to the public about ten years ago. Lady Pollock did not make the actor's acquaintance until just as he was about to retire from the stage, and her reminiscences relate for the most part to his sayings and doings in private life. Thus, she records his opinions on his art as expressed from time to time in his table-talk. We are told (p. 30) that Macready thought little of Junius Brutus Booth—whom, however, he could have seen only at the beginning of his career, when Booth was crushed by the competition of Edmund Kean. Macready attended Coleridge's lectures on Shakspeare, and they delighted him, although they were discursive. "He recalled a striking expression of Coleridge's in condemning passages of revolting horror as alien from true art; he said it was 'a descent from the heart to the stomach'" (p. 25); and Macready then cited certain modern French plays as examples of this fault—Hugo's "Le Roi s'amuse" being one. He was wont to assert the great difficulty of reading plays aloud, and he doubted whether dramatic

reading could ever be altogether satisfactory as an art. "No change of voice should ever be attempted: it misdirects the attention; only a change of tone, as a softer tone for the woman" (p. 26). Macready's example as a reader may, perhaps, be placed against his precept. Lady Pollock gives an excellent description of the way in which he read "Hamlet," and she praises especially "the supernatural character with which the ghost was invested. He neither growled nor droned nor dragged the time, but his tones seemed to come from another world. They were audible, quite audible; but they were without resonance" (p. 40). This unpretending monograph is full of bits of criticism as interesting as this and as stimulating to the student of the stage. To be noted also is the hitherto unprinted letter written to Macready by Alfred de Vigny, after the author of "Cinq-Mars" had been to see the English actor as *Richelieu*.

Mr. Winter's "Henry Irving" is the last and the best of a long line of works on the same subject. It is handy in form and beautifully printed. The preface correctly declares it to be "a record of Henry Irving's professional career upon the New York stage and a study of his acting." The record is well-nigh perfect. It is full in its statements of fact, precise and accurate; abounding in dates, casts of plays, composition of companies, etc., and lacking only an index. The study of the acting—that is to say, the purely critical part of the work—is also excellent, though Mr. Winter's opinion of Mr. Irving's acting, of his histrionic faculty, of his artistic limitations, is not always our opinion. He has the good habit of giving a concrete example for his abstract dictum. In a volume so scrupulously prepared as this, it is not hypercriticism to point out two trifling mistakes: On p. 11, Mr. Winter tells us that the French original of "The Bells," the "Juif Polonais" of MM. Erckmann-Chatrian, was not intended for representation. We believe him to be misinformed on this point; at all events, the play certainly was acted at the Cluny Theatre not long before the English adaptation was produced at the Lyceum Theatre. The other error is a misprint only: On p. 43, the name of one of the French authors of the "Lyons Mail" is spelled "Sevaudin." It should be *Siraudin*.

Mr. Keese has written a pleasant and readable account of Burton's career as an actor and as a manager. As an actor, Burton was perhaps the last of the British low comedians who have been succeeded by the present finer, drier, more American actors of comic character. Burton was broad to the verge of vulgarity—and sometimes beyond it; and the more decorous theatre of our times would not tolerate the means of raising a loud laugh to which Burton descended not infrequently. But he was an actor of abundant and unctuous humor, and he had no need to lower himself to the level of the clown. It is as a manager that he had most influence on the American theatre. The house which he managed raised the level of the American stage, continued the best traditions of the old Park Theatre, and made the way straight for the elder Wallack, when his time came to found the famous theatre we now see in its decadence. Mr. Keese has performed his task with simplicity and taste. He has not omitted the list of parts performed by the actor—an indispensable appendage of all dramatic biographies; nor has he omitted a full and trustworthy index. He has had the aid of the surviving members of Burton's family; and we could have spared the reprinted description of the actor's library in favor of more anecdotes, or of more letters like the characteristic epistle written not long before the actor died, and given in full on pages 104-110. We had hoped, also, that Mr. Keese might be able to find among Mr. Burton's papers some further account of the rela-

tions between the comedian, when he was publishing the *Gentleman's Magazine* in Philadelphia, and Poe, when the latter was its editor. Mr. Woodberry has treated the quarrel at length in his new life of Poe (pp. 128-142), but we should have been glad of any other letters, if such there be, in the possession of Burton's family.

"An Actor's Tour" is one of the most needless and worthless books it has ever been our misfortune to read. "I celebrate myself," might be its motto; for it is an exhibition of complacent and ignorant egotism, disfigured by a most offensive snobbishness (see the references to Lord Lytton and Charles Reade, p. 182; to Mr. "Mowbray" [sic] Morris, p. 102; and to Mr. "Willy" [sic] Winter, p. 226). The sub-title, "Seventy Thousand Miles with Shakespeare," is an impertinence.

By *mise-en-scène* the French mean the stage-management of a play, the setting of it on the stage in all its details of "readings," "business," scenery, costumes, music, etc. It is on this important subject that M. Becq de Fouquières has written a treatise of indisputable value. He confesses in his preface his great indebtedness to M. Sarcey's weekly criticisms in the *Temps*, and the regular reader of that paper will find little here that is absolutely new. But the matter is perfectly assimilated and set forth in logical sequence from beginning to end. His argument is too compact to be summarized in the space at our command. We can do no more than to recommend the book most cordially to all who are interested in the stage, and desire some insight into the principles which should govern acting, costumes, and scenery. Incidentally, M. de Fouquières is led to join issue with the new naturalistic school which wishes to substitute the exact imitation of nature for the artistic suggestion of nature—the sole desirable or possible thing. M. de Fouquières, of course, is a Frenchman of the strictest sect, and his examples are chosen almost entirely from the French drama.

*The Native Religions of Mexico and Peru.* By Albert Réville, D.D., Professor of the Science of Religions at the Collège de France. (Hibbert Lectures, 1884.) English translation by Philip H. Wicksteed, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons.

MR. WICKSTEED has made an admirable translation of these six lectures, which were originally delivered in French, and the author himself has said some excellent things, which are very true. Thus, on page 41, when he qualifies the Mexican worship-mound as being "essentially a gigantic altar, of pyramidal form, built in several stages, contracting as they approached the summit," he has given perhaps the very best definition of it ever published. Again, touching upon the delicate questions of relationship between the "religions and civilization" of aboriginal America and those of the Old World, he very truly remarks (p. 200): "The fact is, that all these attempts rest on the arbitrary selection of some few traits of resemblance, on which exclusive stress is laid, to the neglect of still more characteristic differences." On p. 205, he announces the great truth that "there is not the smallest trace of an earlier monotheism preceding the polytheism of either the one or the other nation [Mexico and Peru]." We have not space to dwell on M. Réville's summary of the characteristics of this polytheism. Suffice it to say that it is excellent, and that he has unconsciously stated the "true inwardness" of Indian religion in general.

It is almost singular that he should have succeeded so well, for the bulk of his work is far from deserving the praise which we are happy to bestow upon the foregoing points. M. Réville has, in the main, not only followed the

inflated and exaggerated views held of aboriginal American culture by many authors like Prescott and Bancroft—he even improves upon the latter. This leads him, in his descriptions of that culture, to errors so numerous that we refrain from specifying more than one, which will serve amply to explain the rest. We allude to the first lecture (p. 17):

"To begin with, we treat these two districts [Central America and Mexico] as a single whole, because the Europeans found them inhabited by a race which was divided, it is true, into several varieties, but was distinguished clearly from the red-skins in the north, and still more from the Eskimos, and alone of the native races of North America had proved itself capable of rising by its own strength to a veritable civilization."

The disadvantage under which M. Réville labors is one which is common to the majority of writers on American aboriginal topics. He does not know the American aboriginal from personal observation and experience, and therefore makes of him an imaginary being. He is not conscious of the fact that, at the time of the conquest (as since—with very few modern exceptions in the United States, and excepting also the Indians trained and educated by the Spaniards and the Catholic Church), no Indian was permanently sedentary, none absolutely erratic. The permanency of residence is due not so much to a higher development as to natural causes. M. Réville also forgets that the "Age of Stone" prevailed equally over the whole continent, in Mexico as well as among the tribes of Brazil; that the so-called bronze is an accidental compound; that the "savages" of New York used copper as well as his "civilized natives" of Peru, whereas the solitary house-builders of New Mexico had none—in short, that there is only a gradual difference, and no fundamental distinction. So-called "wild tribes" are even, in certain arts, further advanced than the ancient Mexicans and Peruvians.

Where there is such a lack of ethnological knowledge and experience on the subject, it can hardly be expected that the use made of the literary material accumulated since the Columbian period would be more than the usual copying and quoting. M. Réville has used a fair array of authorities, but he has done so without applying to them the judicious criticism required of an historian. His book, in short, is one of the many which have contributed to discredit American aboriginal history and archaeology before the modern public, through the constant clash and jar of their views with actual facts. It is much to be regretted that such should be the case. As we have before stated, some of the statements and assertions, rather than conclusions, of M. Réville are surprisingly true, but they are not in harmony with the main picture as presented by him. This has prevented him from reaching a just appreciation of causes, and therefore from making his book a valuable addition to history as well as to the "Science of Religions" itself.

*The Flemish School of Painting.* By Prof. A. G. Wauters. Translated by Mrs. Henry Rosset. [South Kensington Series.] Cassell & Co.

THE growth of the art of Flanders is too closely involved with that of Holland, whether considered in reference to its inner springs or its school characteristics, to permit the two to be separated in any philosophical study. Considered in reference to the great developments of the art of painting throughout Europe, the Dutch and Flemish schools must count as one, like the Umbrian and Florentine, in view of the fact that they obey the same general law and spring from the same inspiration. The distinguishing trait which decides the position of the school of the Low Countries, taken as a whole, is its realism, both in form and color. While the Italian school

slowly evolved from the Byzantine, based on the antique tradition of the ideal, the Dutch, alien in history as in temperament to this poetic descent, took root and grew vigorously and rapidly from the beginning in direct inspiration of nature; and from this spring the art of Rembrandt and that of Rubens are equally derived. Political and religious causes separated the race into two nations and differentiated the art, but the political history is not more closely entangled than the artistic, and it is as difficult to give a clear conception of the earliest art of one without reference to the other, as it would be to write the history of Flanders and make no reference to Holland. It is only when the French Renaissance invaded the Low Countries that Belgium, having already ethnologically become in part French, began to develop an art which separates itself completely from the art of Holland; and this influence has so increased that to-day the art of Belgium is less Flemish than Gallic—the painters are more Walloon than the people.

The history of Professor Wauters, by slighting these relations, neglects an element essential to the elucidation of his subject. His patriotic pride is greater than his love of art. No one can belittle the honor due the Van Eycks, or obscure the fact that they were the prime movers in an artistic revolution; but it would have been more worthy an historian to have shown in their proper place the common sources of the ancestry of Rubens and Rembrandt, Teniers and Van Dyck, than to have dismissed the subject with a single paragraph of seventeen short lines:

"When speaking of Van Eyck and his sojourn at the Hague in 1422-24, we have suggested the probability of the direct influence which he, the head of the school of Bruges, must have exercised on the Dutch school then in its birth. Indeed, it is toward that period that we have the first record of Albert Van Ouwater, the earliest known painter of the northern provinces. Haarlem was the scene of the labors of Gérard de Saint Jean (1450), his pupil; the two panels which are attributed to this artist at the Imperial Museum of Vienna denote the influence exercised by the Flemish school of the end of the fifteenth century."

If, then, Van Ouwater was already known as painter when Van Eyck went to the Hague, there must be an artistic genealogy antedating that visit. What this was, and how far both painters were the result of a common tendency, as were the school of Cimabue and the contemporary school of Sienna, was worth the historian's study. He does, indeed, later in his work, admit practically the identity of the schools in two sentences (p. 178): "In its origin, the history of Dutch painting can hardly be separated from that of Flemish painting. Both sought inspiration from the same sources, and were guided by the same master; the result was that in the fifteenth century the seventeen provinces produced exactly the same art." Why not, then, have given us to understand clearly the common parentage and common course?

But Professor Wauters is rather a eulogist than an historian, and his eulogy runs rather into poetry than plain criticism. In speaking of Rubens he says:

"He is everywhere, and everywhere abundantly represented. He is everywhere, and everywhere triumphant. No matter what pictures surround him, the effect is invariable: those which resemble his own are eclipsed, those that would oppose him are silenced. Wherever he is, he makes you feel his presence; he stands alone, and at all times occupies the first place. . . . The same ardent brush which depicted the struggles of lions and Titans, painted garlands of cherubs bright with silver and pearl; he exposes all the coarseness of a village fair, and without an effort rises to the most sublime heights of art with Homer, Dante, Michael Angelo, and Shakespeare. . . . His weak points themselves proclaim his genius and his might; they are but the consequence of his rarest gifts, of his sumptuous coloring, his masterly dimensions, his astounding

facility, his eloquence, his vitality. How gorgeous his coloring! How admirably all those tints of red, gold, blue, vermillion are blended! How they enhance the beauty of his pearly carnations! How powerful and stirring their harmony! What an irresistible hold they have on our senses! We are bewildered, delighted, bewitched, entranced! . . . His touch is masterly; his brush flies and scatters sparks on marble columns, breastplates, unfurled standards, brocaded silks, distant verdure, golden hair, and the luxurious show of his rosy-tinted carnations."

There are nearly four pages of this frantic effulgence of the pen—to invent a phrase that shall fitly characterize the rhapsody which Professor Wauters imagines to be criticism. Of course, after this, any other commendation is tame; and of Leys, the most remarkable painter of the modern Belgian (no longer Flemish) school, this modest sentence is the highest note of praise: "We do not fear to prophesy that some of the figures in the four large panels at the Hôtel de Ville will rank among the finest creations of the nineteenth century." In common with many other authorities, he errs, we believe, in making Alma-Tadema a pupil of Leys. There is good authority for saying that Alma-Tadema never was in the studio of Leys, although an admirer and follower of the great Belgian master.

The illustrations are copious, but, in common with all those in this series that we have thus far seen, coarse and ineffective. The addition of the monograms of the painters is a tribute to a branch of erudition once of some value, but which, now that pictures as well as monograms are thoroughly and systematically counterfeited, has no longer any meaning.

*Italy, from the Fall of Napoleon I. in 1815 to the death of Victor Emmanuel in 1878.* By John Webb Probyn. Cassell & Co. 1 vol., 8vo.

THE period marked in the title of this book is one of the most marvellous in the history of Italy, and will hereafter vie in romance and legend with the most heroic periods of Greece and Rome. Any one who was a witness of the state of Italy from 1815 to 1848, when Lamartine called it the "the land of the dead," and Metternich "a geographical expression," must look upon the change that took place from 1848 to 1870 as something bordering on the miraculous and supernatural.

On the fall of the Empire of Napoleon the First, Italy was cut up into eight principalities, by the so-called Holy Alliance of Kings, and handed over, bound hand and foot, to Austria and a number of kings and dukes, her dependants and minions, including the Pope, who were compelled to obey slavishly her slightest wish in the government of their small territories. Whatever movement for liberty took place in any of these States, if not suppressed at once by the local petty despots, was crushed by the overwhelming military force of Austria, who would march her armies from her formidable quadrilateral of Lombardy into any of their territories as a landlord among his tenants, sometimes without even the formality of asking leave.

The Revolution of 1848, begun in Sicily against the Bourbons of Naples and which then spread over Italy, took Europe by surprise; France followed in its wake, and then part of Germany and Hungary. All the small Italian despots, taken suddenly aback, pretended to yield to the Liberal movement, but abided their time for repression; except one, Charles Albert of Savoy. Something similar happened to Germany and Austria. But no sooner was there a Napoleon at the head of the French Government, though a nominal republic, than the old despotic powers combined together to smother the Liberal movement—Russia in Hungary, Prussia in Germany, Austria, France, and even Spain in Italy. In



less than two years, Austria, which had lost Milan and Venice, recovered them by force of arms, and occupied Modena, Tuscany, Parma, and Bologna, replacing the dukes on their thrones, but with Austrian garrisons. The King of Naples, the famous Bomba, crushed liberty by treachery and brute force in Naples and Sicily; and the French attacked Rome, and by force of arms restored the Pope to his throne, while Spain sent a division that occupied Ancona for the same purpose. Thus, nearly two-thirds of Italy was occupied by the Austrian armies, the Roman State by the French and Spanish; and Naples and Sicily groaned under the iron rule of the Bourbon of Naples, with his ten regiments of Swiss and Bavarian mercenaries.

Only in the northern corner, a little kingdom of four million souls held aloft a broken sword and a tattered flag, which Victor Emmanuel of Savoy had gathered on a bloody field of battle after a crushing defeat at Novara, March 23, 1849. His father, Charles Albert, who had taken the people's side against Austria, had been defeated on that day and abdicated, and Victor Emmanuel gathered up the broken sword and tattered flag, and assumed the task of liberating Italy, slowly but boldly, gathering strength from all sources—from the Liberal element at home, of whatever shade, from alliances abroad; gradually regaining what Piedmont had lost. Then he began with Cavour that system of Liberal reforms that attracted all the Italian patriots to the constitutional government of Piedmont and its young King. The alliance with France and England during the Crimean war opened the way to the recognition of the Italian question before Europe, 1855-56. The marriage of Princess Clotilde with Prince Napoleon secured the alliance of France for the war of 1859, which dispossessed Austria of Lombardy, and caused the revolution of Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and Bologna, who annexed themselves to Piedmont. The year after, Garibaldi descended upon Sicily with his one thousand patriots, and overturned the throne of the last offshoot of the Bourbons of Naples, and bestowed a kingdom of eight millions on Victor Emmanuel, who was then proclaimed King of Italy. There remained only two states under foreign bayonets, Venice and Rome. The alliance with Prussia in 1866 opened the quadrilateral and the City of the Lagoons to the Italians; and the defeat of Sedan, causing France to recall her army of occupation from Rome, opened the gates of the Eternal City, and accomplished the unity of Italy in 1870. Eight years after, Victor Emmanuel died in the very capital of the new kingdom which he had liberated from foreign and domestic tyranny.

Mr. Probyn says in the preface to his book: "The purpose of this volume is to give a concise account of the chief causes and events which have transformed Italy from a divided into a united country. A detailed history of this important epoch would fill volumes, and will not be written for sometime to come." Mr. Probyn has kept his word and has given us that and nothing more. But the subject is so pregnant with matter that his work, though accurate as to dates and the chronological course of events, is meagre in the extreme, and leaves the reader totally unsatisfied. Moreover, the "chief causes" are so superficially and lightly touched upon that they appear utterly inadequate to the events which they produced. We commend the book, therefore, simply as an epitome of the striking events that took place in Italy during the period under review.

*Lessons on Practical Subjects for Grammar-School Children.* By S. F. and C. W. F. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

OPINIONS differ as to the wisdom of arranging

the college curriculum with direct reference to the demands of every-day life, but in the case of the public schools the question is hardly an open one. The vast majority of their scholars must finish their education and go to work at about the age when preparation for college is begun, and it is essential that what knowledge they get should be immediately available. Holding this view, the authors of the little book above named have presented some of the elementary principles and most important facts of our economy in such a way as to be comprehensible to the youngest scholars. An outline is given of the subjects of money, bonds, taxation, corporations, and savings-banks, with much sensible advice upon such matters as strikes, habits of saving, etc., interspersed. The style of the book is extremely simple and clear, and although human beings generally insist upon being taught by experience in financial matters, yet if they have once listened to these plain lessons they may buy their experience cheaper and profit by it sooner.

We incline to think that it would have been better to select examples from actual history in many cases where imaginary instances have been taken. Thus, to illustrate the necessity of the introduction of money by supposed dealings between antediluvian tailors and bakers is to be guilty of an anachronism—although the responsibility for this illustration may be thrown upon Adam Smith—and it is certainly undesirable to give the impression, even to grammar-school children, that iron was generally employed as money before the other metals. We trust that prejudice and official regulations will not hinder the fair trial of this book in some of our schools. It can hardly fail to interest both teachers and pupils, and although the authors disclaim the intention of burdening scholars with another separate study, we should be glad to see their intention defeated. These matters are of enough importance to crowd grammar and geography into the background.

*Labrador. A Sketch of its Peoples, its Industries, and its Natural History.* By Winfrid Alden Stearns. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1884. 12mo, pp. 295.

THIS is an excellent account of southern Labrador by one who has made three voyages to the coast and wintered upon it. Indeed, Mr. Stearns's relation of his winter experience at Bonne Espérance, near the southern entrance to the Strait of Belle-Isle, is the most original and valuable part of these sketches. At the same time the book is the only good guide to the coast from the Mingan Islands to the end of the Straits of Belle-Isle that we possess. So far as regards this region we can recommend it for its careful description of the better-known harbors and points of interest as far north as Chateau Bay opposite Belle-Isle and Newfoundland. The account of Mr. Stearns's third voyage, in which he went a few miles beyond Square Island, situated in about lat. 52° 30' N., a little north of Cape St. Lewis, is very brief, and contains little that is noteworthy or novel.

The sketches of a Labrador home; of the average Labradorian, so hardy, rugged, and shiftless; of the winter scenes and amusements; the autumnal moving from the summer house on the shore to the more sheltered winter house up the bays; of the summer fishing; of winter and summer sports; and of the sudden breaking up of the ice and the incoming of spring at the beginning of June—all these characteristics of Labrador life and nature are faithfully sketched. We should have liked some new information regarding the Eskimo occupation of southern Labrador, although on p. 231 a mound containing five Eskimo graves is briefly described; and more about the ornithology and game birds, as well as the geological features of this in-

teresting coast; but as it is, the book will prove indispensable to any one bound to "the Labrador" for a summer's cruise.

Some mistakes could have been avoided, such as "Dutch" for German, in referring to the German Moravians. On the last page Okkak is spelled Okkuk; Cape Chudleigh should read Cape Chidley uniformly. These are the most noticeable errors in what is a timely picture of a little-known region, a health resort for the summer which should attract more visitors to the coast, though the trip is always a stormy one, with dangers from fog and ice.

*"Boots and Saddles": or, Life in Dakota with General Custer.* By Elizabeth R. Custer. Harper & Brothers. 1885.

Mrs. CUSTER has appropriately taken for her title the military "call" that puts the cavalry in motion, for her book is a record of the nomadic life the ladies lead who follow our mounted regiments, constantly on the alert, and often on the march. Even peace gives little rest to officers, troopers, or wives. She has undertaken "to give a glimpse to civilians of garrison and camp life," as a general answer to the many questions constantly asked about the details of an existence that has so little in common with ordinary pursuits. That she has truthfully presented the domestic life of an army family, there is abundant internal evidence. Moreover, she has done it graphically. This refinement in the desert, these privations that become pleasure on account of those who share them, and the constant undercurrent of excitement that any day may ripple the surface and change the course of life, are enough to fill the spectator with surprise and to warm the participant's blood in healthy circulation. The book is breezy with the open air and cheery with horse and hound. It touches lightly the inevitable annoyances, and, while recounting incidents whose horror is fully measured, it passes on, without unnecessary loitering, to show the brighter side. Mrs. Custer has written a most vivid account of army life, and many of her experiences must be daily repeating themselves to the devoted wives now on the military frontier. She has given us a very pleasant glimpse into the inner courts of the sodality of the spur. But she has less to tell about lieutenants than lieutenant-colonels; and the fair girls whom yellow plumes and prancing horses attract westward, should read this book and count the cost of their prospective sacrifices before speaking the irrevocable words. Socially, all grades are equal, but subalterns and commanding officers with similar human desires have, from the exigencies of rank, very dissimilar facilities for their gratification.

Incorporated with these pages are two memorials: one of General Custer as he appeared to his wife, and one (entirely unconscious) of a fascinating and most loyal wife, always tender and true, whose constant thought was the pleasure and honor of him she loved. To those who have measured General Custer from the point of a man's observation, this newer view will be of great interest; and all who admire a guideless heart will be carried away by this transparent record, which is an effectual antidote to certain fiction lately published to the disparagement of ladies whom the bugles rally. We may be thankful for what Mrs. Custer has given us, but she has not told all her experiences of flood and field, and we may hope for a new volume with notes of her preceding campaigns.

*A Lady's Ride Across Spanish Honduras.* By Maria Soltera. With illustrations. Edinburgh: Blackwood. 1884.

MARIA "SOLTERA," an English governess, landed

at Amapala, a port on the Pacific coast of Honduras. Tempted by a glowing pamphlet describing the advantages of a settlement in San Pedro Sula, a town about 200 miles to the north, she was on her way thither, alone, as her pseudonym indicates, to take charge of a school which was being erected for the colonists' children. Provided with a hammock, a mosquito net, a *mozo* or boy, three mules, and a muleteer, she set out on her hard, though not dangerous journey. After various mishaps, none of them serious, she reached San Pedro only to find that she had been grossly deceived. The colonists had nearly all left, and there was no school nor immediate prospect of one. There was nothing to be done then but to continue her ride to a port on the northern seaboard, whence she took passage in a steamer for New Orleans. Her account of her adventures is lively and entertaining, and she impresses one as having tact and courage not surpassed even by Miss Bird. She is enthusiastic in her praises of the magnificence of the mountain scenery of Honduras, and dwells gratefully on the uniform kindness with which she was treated by the people. Of the Indian women whom she met she draws a most attractive picture. There seems to be little enterprise among the natives, the business of the various places through which she passed being mostly in the hands of foreigners. Even the Alcalde of a town in the interior was a Scotchman by birth, and in another a Frenchman. The food of the people consists principally of *tortillas* (Indian cakes), plantains, and occasionally fowls and dried venison. Their property is mainly in cattle, of which she saw many fine herds. At one village they were holding their annual *fiesta*, the chief features of which were a bull chase (the bull belonging to the captor) and the graceful *ronda* of the muleteers, so called "because the dancers are surrounded by their mules, which are all decked with their gayest trappings; some of these bearing panniers, sometimes filled with flowers, sometimes filled with babies." The Hondurians spoke very bitterly of the railway built by the English some years ago from Puerto Cortez on the Atlantic coast about a hundred miles into the interior. Many were led to invest in it and were utterly ruined by its failure, which was caused, they say, "by British mismanage-

ment and not by ours." The greater part is unserviceable, and on that which is in working order trains run at intervals of a few days. The people are now looking eagerly to the United States for help. "We are hoping now for brighter days," said a cheery Spanish landlady. "America is bringing in both labor and money." A contract for the navigation of the Ulua, granted not long ago to two Americans, gives some ground for this hope.

*Weird Tales.* By R. T. W. Hoffmann. A new translation by J. T. Bealby. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE disadvantages to which writers of short stories, as a class, are subject, disappear with authors whose forte is the description of the abnormal and grotesque. Poe is an instance of the popularity which such writers may enjoy for more than one generation; and so, perhaps, in a greater degree, is his prototype Hoffmann, whose tales have been translated, some of them, hundreds of times. Carlyle wrote, in 1827, that Hoffmann belonged to that class of "vivid and gifted literary men whose genius, never cultured or elaborated into purity, finds loud and sudden, rather than judicious or permanent, admiration." As a prophecy, this characterization is a failure; but there can be no doubt of its soundness as criticism. The present collection contains only twelve out of a total of fifty-two tales—the same number and, generally, the same stories as were embraced in the Boston edition of 1855. As regards the English, the new translation is commonplace, but has the advantage of being made from the original instead of through the French. But the memoir of the author, which fills sixty-seven pages, appears to have been purely perfunctory, and is very shabby reading after Carlyle's admirable, though brief, article.

*Poems, Plays, and Miscellaneous Essays of Charles Lamb.* With introduction and notes by Alfred Ainger. London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 408.

To Mr. Ainger we are already indebted for the

sympathetic monograph on Lamb in Mr. Morley's "English Men of Letters" series, and for admirable editions of the 'Tales from Shakespeare' and the 'Essays of Elia.' In the present volume he has collected all of Lamb's other prose and verse of which the author himself or his literary executors authorized the collection; so that the possessor of this volume and of Mr. Ainger's edition of the 'Essays' has Lamb's complete works, so far, at least, as Lamb himself knew them. Mr. Ainger rightly holds that an author's wishes have some title to an editor's regard; and although he does not think that the world will willingly let die even the smaller scraps that fell from Lamb's table, he prefers to gather up these minor odds and ends in a volume apart and distinct from the regular works. After he has edited this supplemental volume of *Elia*, we understand that he intends to prepare a complete collection of Lamb's letters—a service for which all lovers of Lamb will be duly grateful to him, seeing that none of the existing collections is either accurate or complete. In the notes to this, as to the preceding volume, Mr. Ainger has rescued from fugitive MSS. more than one of Lamb's epistles as characteristic as anything in the 'Essays of Elia.' Our editor's notes are models. In that to Lamb's paper on Wither, a poet whom he affected greatly, Mr. Ainger tells us that the paper was originally a series of marginal notes on a copy of Wither's 'Philarete,' now in the possession of Mr. Swinburne. The note to "Mr. H." sets forth the true reason of its failure in London, and records its success in the United States. In the introduction is given a poem of Lamb's hitherto unprinted. It only remains to say that the poems have been arranged for the first time in strict chronological order, and that the text, everywhere, has been carefully revised.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Badeau, Gen. A. Military History of Ulysses S. Grant. From April, 1861, to April, 1865. In 3 vols. D. Appleton & Co.  
Barrows, Isabel C. Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Eleventh Annual Session, St. Louis, 1884. Boston: G. H. Ellis.  
Behrens, Dr. J. W. The Microscope in Botany. Illustrated. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co.  
Buckley, Dr. J. M. Oats or Wild Oats? Common-Sense for Young Men. Harper & Brothers.  
Cox, Sir G. W. Lives of Greek Statesmen. Solon to Themistocles. Harper & Brothers.

## New Books.

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**TAINES'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.** Vol. III. By H. A. Taine, D.C.L., Oxon, author of 'A History of English Literature,' etc. Translated by John Durand. Vol. 3. \$2.50. The complete work, 3 vols., \$7.50.

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